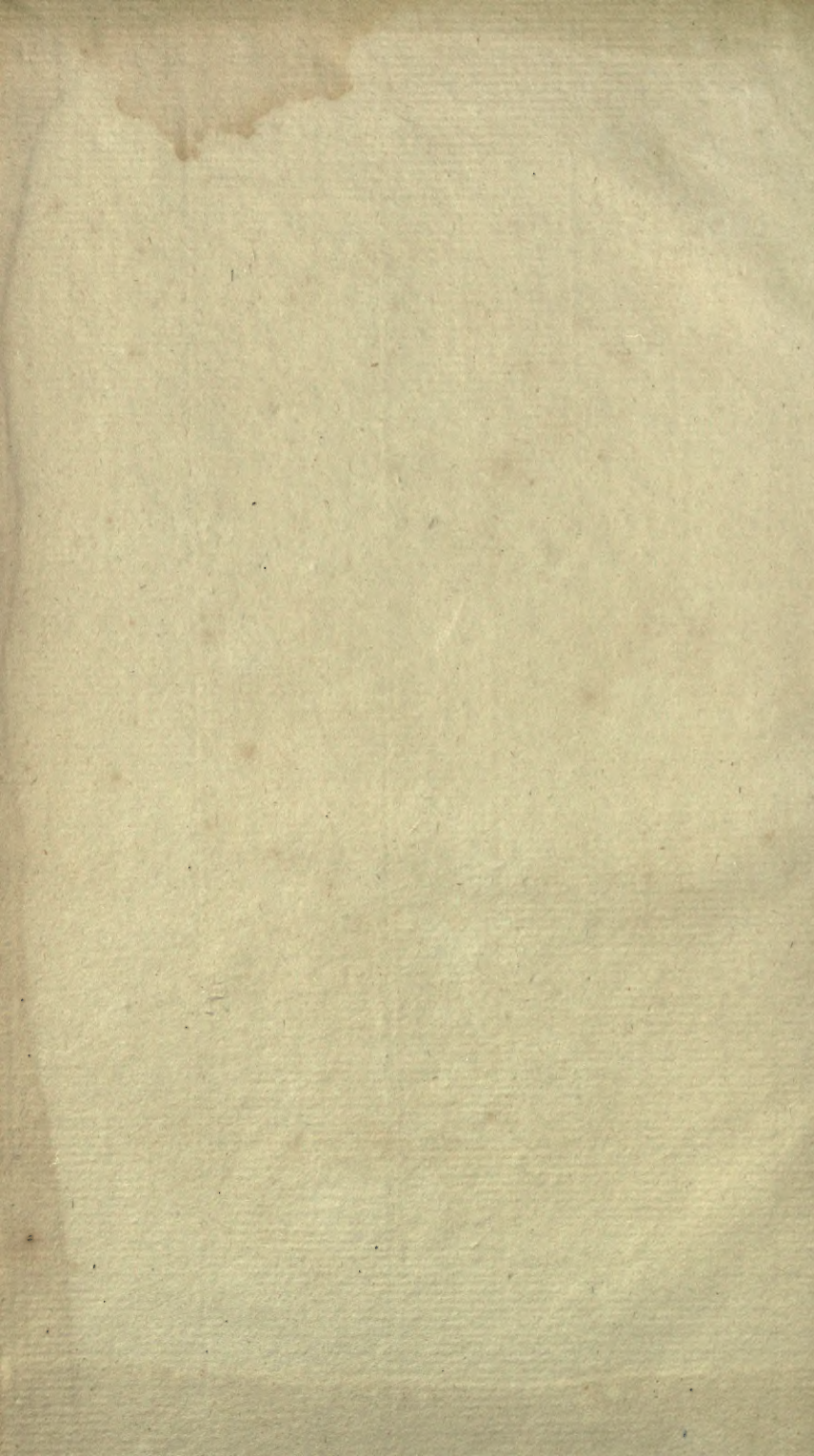
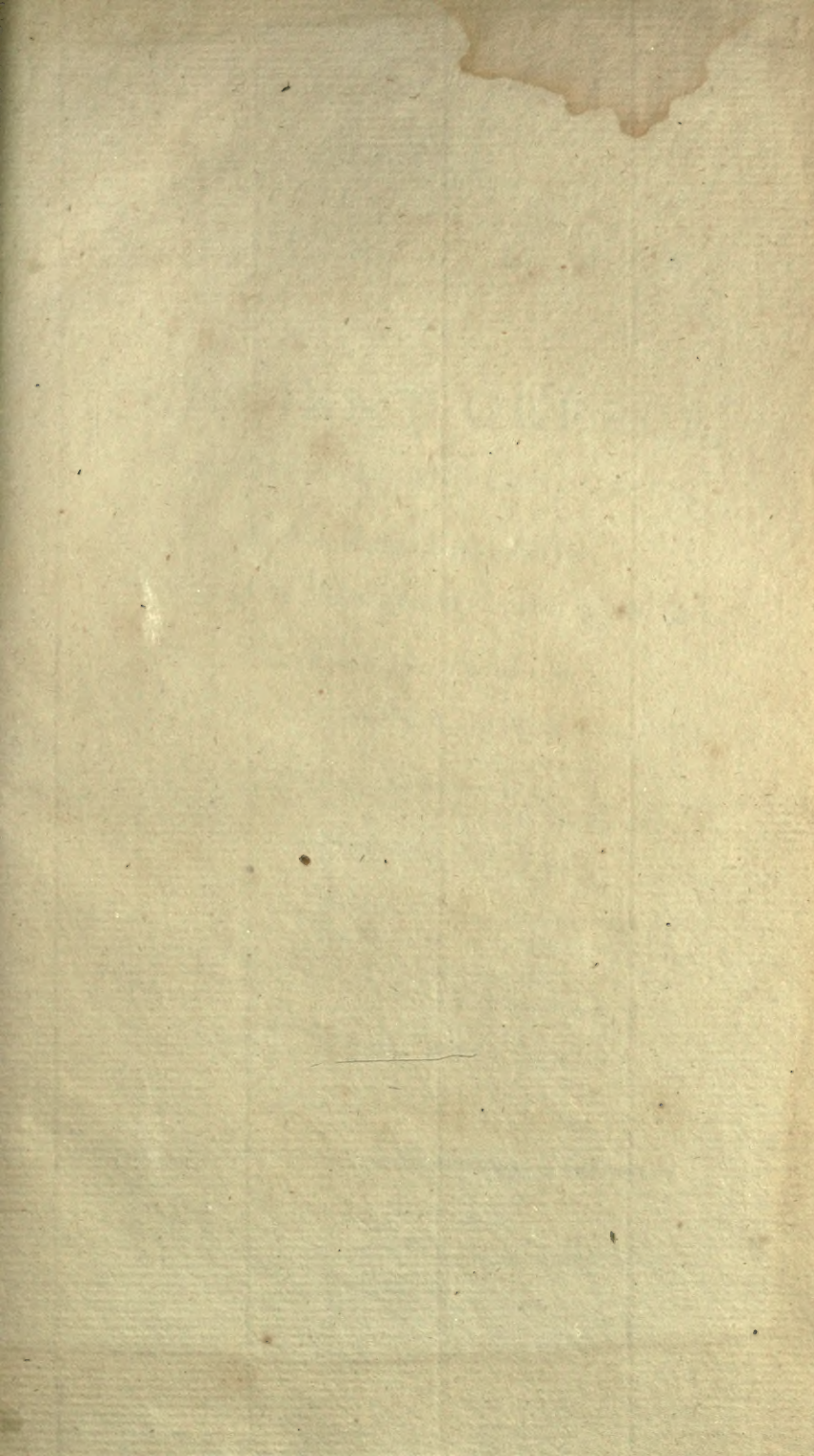


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THE
H I S T O R Y
OF
ANCIENT GREECE,
ITS COLONIES, AND CONQUESTS;

From the Earliest Accounts till the
Division of the Macedonian Empire in the East.

INCLUDING THE HISTORY OF
LITERATURE, PHILOSOPHY, AND THE FINE ARTS.

By JOHN GILLIES, LL. D. F.A.S.

Εκ μὲν τοιγὲ τῆς ἀπαντῶν πρὸς ἀλλήλα συμπλοκῆς καὶ παραθίσεως,
ἐτι δὲ ὁμοιοτήτος καὶ διαφορᾶς, μόνως ἂν τις ἐφίκοιτο καὶ διηγεῖται
κατοπτύσας, ἀλλὰ καὶ τὸ χρησιμὸν καὶ τὸ τέρπνον ἐκ τῆς ἱστορίας
λαβεῖν. POLYBIUS, l. i. c. v.

THE SECOND EDITION.

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Division of the Macedonian Empire in the B.C.
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F O U R T H V O L U M E.

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E R R A T A.

- Page 34, line 4, Note, *for Their, read There.*
— 37, — last, *for these, read those.*
— 45, — 1, Note, *for τω, read το.*
— 72, — 5, Note, *for ταλντα, read ταλαντα.*
— 177, — 4, *insert of before Macedon.*

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O F
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C H A P. XXXIII.

History of Macedon.—Reign of Archelaus.—Series of Usurpations and Revolutions.—Perdiccas defeated by the Illyrians.—Distracted State of Macedon.—First Transactions of Philip.—State of Thrace and Pæonia.—Philip defeats Argæus and the Athenians—His Treatment of the Prisoners.—His military Arrangements.—He defeats the Illyrians.—His Designs against Amphipolis.—He prevents an Alliance between Athens and Olynthus.—Amuses the Athenians.—Takes Amphipolis.—His Conquests in Thrace.—The Mines of Crenidæ.—Philip marries Olympias.—His Letter to Aristotle.

FOUR hundred and sixteen years before the Christian æra, and little more than half a century before Philip assumed the government of Macedon, that country, to a superficial observer, might have appeared scarcely distinguish-
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C H A P.
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The king-
dom of
Macedon
founded
by Cara-
nus.
A. C. 814.

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able from the barbarous kingdoms of Thrace, Pæonia, and Illyricum, which furrounded it on the north, east, and west. Towards the south, it was excluded from the sea by a chain of Grecian republics, of which Olynthus and Amphipolis were the most flourishing and powerful. To this inland district, originally confined to the circumference of about three hundred miles, Caranus, an Argive prince of the numerous race of Hercules, eluding the dangers which proved fatal to royalty¹ in most communities of Greece², conducted a small colony of his adventurous and warlike countrymen, and, having conquered the barbarous natives, settled in Edeffa, the capital of the province then named Emathia, and afterwards Macedonia, for reasons equally unknown³. The establishment of this little principality, which, under Philip, grew into a powerful kingdom, and, under Alexander, swelled into the most extensive empire known in the ancient world, was adorned (could we believe historic flattery) by many extraordinary circumstances, presaging its future greatness. The gods took care of the infancy of Macedon, and sent, as oracles had announced, a herd of goats to conduct Caranus to his new capital of Edeffa, which thence changed its name to Ægæ, the city of goats; a fiction unworthy of record, did it not explain the reason why goats were adopted as the ensigns of Macedon, and why the figures of those

¹ Justin. l. vii. c. i. Velleius Paterculus, l. i. c. vi.

² See vol. i. p. 105.

³ Crophius Antiquit. Macedon.

animals are still to be seen on the coins of Philip, and those of his successors.

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Caranus, as well as the princes Cœnus⁴ and Thyrimas, who immediately followed him, had occasion to exercise their prudence still more than their valour. Their feeble colony of Greeks might have fallen an easy prey to the unhospitable ferocity of the barbarous tribes, by whom it was on all sides surrounded. But the policy of the first kings of Macedon, instead of vainly attempting to repel or to subdue, endeavoured, with more success, to gain, by good offices, the ancient inhabitants of Emathia and the neighbouring districts. They communicated to them the knowledge of many useful⁵ arts; they gave them the Grecian religion⁶ and government⁷ in that state of happy simplicity which prevailed during the heroic ages; and while, to render intercourse more easy and familiar, they adopted, in some degree, the language and manners of the barbarous natives, they, in their turn, imparted to the latter a tincture of the Grecian language and civility⁸. By this judicious and liberal system, so unlike to that pursued by their countrymen in other parts of the world, the followers of Caranus gra-

Prudent
conduct of
its first
kings the
primary
cause of
the great-
ness of
Macedon.

⁴ Justin. ubi supra, Syncell. Chronic.

⁵ Pausanias Achaic. & Thucyd. l. ii.

⁶ Arrian Exped. Alexand. l. iv. p. 83.

⁷ Φιλίππου μὲν παίδι, Ἡρακλείδῃ δὲ ἀπὸ γενεᾶς, ὅτε οἱ πρόγονοι ἐξ Ἀργεὺς εἰς Μακεδονίαν ἦλθον, ἡ δὲ εἰς ἄλλα ἱομένη, Μακεδόνων ἀρχόντες διέτελεσαν. Arrian, l. iv. p. 86. In another passage of the same book he says, the subjects of Macedon had more liberty than the citizens of Greece.

⁸ Demosthenes, Arrian, and Curtius.

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dually associated with the warlike tribes in their neighbourhood, whom it would have been alike impossible for them to extirpate or to enslave; and the same generous policy, being embraced by their descendants, deserves to be regarded as the primary cause of Macedonian greatness.

Transac-
tions of
the Mace-
donians
preceding
the reign
of Arche-
laus I.

A. C. 713

—416.

Perdiccas, the first of that name, so far eclipsed the fame of his three predecessors, that he is accounted the founder of the monarchy by Herodotus⁹ and Thucydides¹⁰. His history has been magnified by fable, which has also obscured or distorted the actions of the five princes¹¹ that intervened between him and Alexander I. who filled the Macedonian throne when Xerxes invaded Greece¹². Here we attain historic ground. Alexander, as related above¹³, took an important and honourable part in the affairs of Greece and Persia, without neglecting the interest of his own kingdom, which he extended to the river Nessus on the east, and to the Axios on the west. His son, Perdiccas II. inherited the abilities of his father, without inheriting his integrity. During the Peloponnesian war, the alliance of this prince formed an object of important concern to the Athenians and Lacedæmonians. He espoused the cause of the latter, which he regarded as his own, because the Athenians, who had occasionally levied tribute on his

⁹ Herodot. l. viii. c. cxxxvii.

¹⁰ Thucydid. l. ii. p. 168.

¹¹ Argæus I. Philip I. Æropus I. Alcetas, Amyntas I. Justin. l. vii. c. ii.

¹² Herodot. l. v. c. xix.

¹³ Vol. i. p. 487.

ancestors,

ancestors¹⁴, were then masters of the Greek settlements along the Macedonian coast, the vicinity of which naturally tempted the ambition of Perdiccas. Under the specious pretence of enabling Olynthus and the other cities of Chalcidicé to recover their independence, he lent his aid to destroy the Athenian influence there, expecting to establish the Macedonian in its stead. But this design failed of success. The Olynthian confederacy was broken, its members became subject to Sparta, and after the misfortunes of that republic had encouraged the Olynthians to resume their freedom, they felt themselves sufficiently powerful not only to resist the encroachments of Macedon, but to make considerable conquests in that country¹⁵.

Archelaus I. who succeeded to the throne, displayed an enlightened policy, far more beneficial to his kingdom than the courage of Alexander, or the craft of Perdiccas. Like those princes, Archelaus was ambitious to enlarge his dominions (having conquered Pydna and other towns in the delightful region of Pieria¹⁶); but his main care was to cultivate and improve them. He facilitated communication between the principal towns of Macedon, by cutting straight roads through most parts of the country; he built walls and places of strength in the situations most favourable for that purpose; encouraged agriculture and the arts, particularly those subservient to war; formed magazines of

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The state of Macedon greatly improved by that prince.
A. C. 416
—410.

¹⁴ Thucyd. ubi supra, & Demosthenes passim.

¹⁵ See above, vol. iii. c. xxix. p. 320, & seqq.

¹⁶ Diodor. Sicul. l. xiii. c. xvi.

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arms; raised and disciplined a considerable body of cavalry; and, in a word, added more to the solid grandeur of Macedon than had been done by all his predecessors together¹⁷. Nor was he regardless of the arts of peace. His palace was adorned by the works of Grecian painters. Euripides was long entertained at his court; Socrates was earnestly solicited to live there after the example of this philosophic poet, formed by his precepts, and cherished by his friendship: men of merit and genius, in all the various walks of literature and science, were invited to reside in Macedon, and treated with distinguished regard by a monarch duly attentive to promote his own glory and the happiness of his subjects¹⁸.

Series of
usurpa-
tions and
revolu-
tions.
A. C. 405
—360.

A reign of six years was too short a period for accomplishing the important ends which Archelaus had in view. By his death the prosperity of Macedon was interrupted for almost half a century, crowded by a succession of ten¹⁹ princes or usurpers, whose

¹⁷ Thucydides says, “than the eight kings who preceded him,” counting Perdiccas for the first. *Ἀρχελαὸς οἱ Περδίκκῃ υἱὸς, βασιλεὺς γενομένος τὰ τεῖχη τῶν οὐτὰ ἐν τῇ χώρᾳ ἀποδομῆσι, καὶ ὁδὸς εὐθείας ἐπέμε, καὶ τὰλλα διεκοσμήσε τὰτε κατὰ τὸν πόλεμον ἵπποις καὶ ὅπλοις καὶ τῇ ἀλλῇ παρασκευῇ κρείσσειν ἢ ἑμπάντες οἱ ἄλλοι βασιλεῖς οὐτῶ οἱ πρὸ αὐτοῦ γενομένοι.* Thucydides, p. 168.

¹⁸ Aristot. Rhetor. l. ii. c. xxix. Stobæus Sermon. 237.

¹⁹ Their names, with the dates of their accession or usurpation, are as follows:

1 Orestes,	A. C. 405	6 Argæus II.	A. C. 385
2 Æropus II.	402	Amyntas again re-esta-	
3 Archelaus II.	394	blished,	383
4 Amyntas II.	392	7 Alexander II.	372
5 Pausanias,	391	8 Perdiccas III.	371
Amyntas II.	390	9 Ptolemy,	370
		Perdiccas,	

whose history forms a perpetual series of crimes and calamities. Amidst these disorders, the sceptre still remained in the family of Hercules; but almost every prince of the blood had an ambition to reign. In order to attain their purpose, the different competitors courted the assistance of the Thracians, of the Illyrians, of the Theffalians, of the Olynthian confederacy, of Athens, of Sparta, and of Thebes; and each of those powers endeavoured to turn to their own immediate profit the dissensions in Macedon. Bardyllis, an active and daring chief, who by his abilities in acquiring, and his equity²⁰ in dividing the spoil, had risen from the condition of a private robber to the command of the Illyrian tribes, entered Macedon at the head of a numerous army, dispossessed Amyntas II. the father of Philip, and placed Argæus on the throne, A. C. 385. who consented to become the tributary of his benefactor²¹. The Thracians supported the title of another prince named Pausanias: but the assistance of Theffaly and Olynthus enabled Amyntas to re-
A. C. 383.sume the government; the Olynthians refusing, however, to surrender several places of importance which Amyntas had entrusted to their protection, or which they had conquered from his competitor. Amyntas complained to Sparta and that republic, for reasons above²² related, declared war against

Perdiccas, A. C. 368	to Amyntas, A. C. 60
Ptolemy, 367	To him Philip succeeded in
Perdiccas, 365	the same year.

²⁰ Cicero de Offic. l. ii.²¹ Diodor. l. xiv. c. xcii.²² See vol. iii. c. xxix. p. 329.

CHAP. Olynthus, and reinstated the Macedonian king in
XXXIII. full possession of his dominions. In consequence

A. C. 380. of that event, Amyntas established, and thenceforth held, his court at Pella, where he enjoyed several years of tranquillity, cultivating the friendship of the Lacedæmonians and Athenians.

The usurper Pausanias.

The short reign of his son Alexander was disturbed by a fresh invasion of the Illyrians, from whom he purchased a precarious peace²³. He left two brothers, Perdiccas and Philip, of whom the eldest was still a minor. Availing himself of *their* youth and weakness, Pausanias found means to usurp the throne, being supported not only by the Thracians, but by a considerable body of Greek mercenaries, as well as by a powerful party in Macedon.

Dephroned by Iphicrates, at the entreaty of Eurydicé.
A. C. 370.

Iphicrates, the Athenian, happened at this critical juncture to return from Amphipolis, the recovery of which formed the main object of his expedition. In former journies to the coast of Thrace, he had been treated with distinguished regard by Amyntas, whose widow Eurydicé now craved the protection of Iphicrates for the sons of his friend. This princess was descended from the Bacchiadæ, the noblest family of Corinth, who, rather than live on an equality with their fellow-citizens in that republic, had become the leaders of the Lyncestæ, a barbarous tribe inhabiting the most western district of Macedon. Eurydicé inherited all the ambition of her race, and was distinguished by a bold

²³ Diodorus & Justin. ubi supra.

intriguing spirit²⁴ still more than by her beauty and accomplishments. With her young sons she suddenly appeared before Iphicrates, in the supplicating form of calamity and woe; presented the eldest to his hand, placed Philip, the younger, on his knee, and conjured him, by “the sincere friendship which Amyntas had ever entertained for Athens and for himself, to pity their tender years, oppressed by cruel usurpation.” The dignity of her sorrow prevailed with Iphicrates, who respected the sacred ties of hospitality, and who saw the advantage that might accrue to Athens by gaining an interest in Macedon. We are not informed by what means he established Perdiccas on the throne. The revolution was effected with such rapidity²⁵, that we may suppose a sudden insurrection of the people, who, on important emergencies, were accustomed, as in the heroic ages, to assemble in arms.

During the minority of the young prince, the kingdom was governed by his natural brother Ptolemy, whose ambition, unsatisfied with a delegated power, openly aspired to reign. This usurper (as we have related above) was dethroned by Pelopidas and the Thebans, who reinstated Perdiccas in his dominions; and, in order to secure the dependence of Macedon on Thebes, carried into that city as hostages thirty Macedonian youths, and with them Philip, the younger brother of the king.

Perdiccas seemed proud of his chain. Elated with the protection of the Thebans, then in the

Ptolemy dethroned by Pelopidas, who sends Philip as a hostage to Thebes.
A. C. 367.

Perdiccas defeated by the Illyrians.

²⁴ Justin. l. vii. c. iv.

²⁵ Cornel. Nepos, in Iphicrat. *Æschin. de falsa Legatione.*

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height of their prosperity, he forgot the gratitude due to Iphicrates and the Athenians; disputed the right of that people to Amphipolis, which had been acknowledged by the general council of Greece ²⁶; and his opposition rendered fruitless their well-directed endeavours to recover that important establishment. The Athenians found an avenger in Bardyllis the Illyrian, to whom Perdiccas had denied the tribute that had been paid by his predecessors Argæus and Alexander. Bardyllis maintained his claim by force of arms. The Macedonians met him in the field, but were totally defeated with the loss of four thousand men ²⁷. Perdiccas was taken prisoner, and soon after died of his wounds. His son Amyntas was an infant. Thebes having lost her pre-eminence in Greece, was unable to protect her distant allies. Athens was hostile, and Macedon, surrounded by enemies on every side, already experienced the fury of Barbarian invaders.

Macedon
distracted
by two
pretend-
ers to the
throne,
and deso-
lated by
four
foreign
armies.

Not only the Illyrians and Bardyllis, who ravaged the west, but the Pæonians, a powerful and warlike tribe, having received some cause of offence from Perdiccas, now indulged their revenge, and insulted the northern frontier without interruption or controul. The Thracians still supported the cause of Pausanias, whom they prepared to send back into Macedon at the head of a numerous army. Ptolemy was dead; but Argæus, the ancient competitor of king Amyntas, emboldened by the victory of the Illyrians, who had formerly placed him on the throne, renewed his pretensions

²⁶ Demosth. de falsa Legat.

²⁷ Diodor. l. xvi. sect. 2.

to that dignity ; and, grown old in intrigue, easily persuaded the Athenians, by the hopes of recovering Amphipolis, to exert themselves in his favour, especially against the son and brother of Perdiccas, by whose insolence and ingratitude they were justly provoked and disgusted. Impelled by such motives, the Athenians launched their fleet, and sailed towards the coast of Macedon, with three thousand heavy-armed men, commanded by Mantias ²⁸.

Such were the evils which threatened, and the calamities which oppressed, that unfortunate and distracted kingdom, when Philip appeared, asserting, unterrified, the rights of his infant nephew, against two candidates for the throne, and four formidable armies. A prince of less courage than Philip would have shrunk from a design seemingly desperate and impracticable ; and had courage been his principal virtue, he would have only heightened the disorders which he hoped to remedy ²⁹. But on this emergency, the young Macedonian (for he was only in his twenty-third year ³⁰) displayed those extraordinary abilities which distinguish his reign, and render it the most interesting spectacle that history can present to those who are delighted with surveying, not the vulgar revolutions of force and fortune, but the active energies and resources of a vigorous and comprehensive mind. Such was the obscurity in which his merit had hitherto lain concealed from the

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Amidst
these ca-
lamities
Philip
arrives in
Macedon.
Olymp.
cv. i.
A. C. 360.

²⁸ Diodorus, ubi supra. ²⁹ Olivier Vie de Philippe, p. 47.

³⁰ Comp. Diodor. p. 510. & Justin. l. ix. c. viii.

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XXXIII.

His edu-
cation,
and trans-
actions
preceding
that pe-
riod.

public, that historians ³¹ disagree as to the place of his residence, when he was informed of the defeat and death of his brother Perdiccas. From the age of fifteen he had lived chiefly in Thebes, in the family, and under the direction of Epaminondas ³², whose lessons and example could not fail to excite, in a kindred mind, the emulation of excellence, and the ardour of patriotism ³³. It is probable that, agreeably to the custom of Greece and Rome, where the youth alternately frequented the school and the camp, and might sometimes find a school of philosophy in the tent of a general, that Philip accompanied the Theban hero in many of his military expeditions. It is certain that, attended suitably to his rank, he visited the principal republics of Greece, whose institutions in peace and war he examined with a sagacity far superior to his years ³⁴. The tactics of the Lacedæmonians were the first new establishment which he introduced into Macedon. Nor was the improvement of his knowledge the only fruit of his travels. The brother of a king found an easy access to whomever he had an interest to know and cultivate. Even in Athens, then hostile to Thebes, and naturally unfavourable

³¹ Diodorus places him in Thebes; Athenæus, l. ii. p. 506, in Macedon; and adds, *Διατρεφὼν δὲ ἐν ταύτῃ δυνάμει, ὡς ἀπεθαὶ Περδικκας, ἐξ εὐτοίμης, δυνάμει ὑπαρχούσης, ἐπέκεισε τοὺς πρᾶγμασι.* Words which admirably correspond to the rapid motions of Philip after the death of Perdiccas.

³² Plutarch. in Pelopida.

³³ Plutarch speaks with the partiality of a Bœotian for Epaminondas, and the resentment of a native of Chæronæa against Philip. See Plutarch. in Pelopid.

³⁴ Plutarch. in Alexand. Athenæus, l. xi. p. 506.

to a pupil of Epaminondas, Philip acquired the friendship and esteem of Plato ³⁵, Isocrates ³⁶, and Aristotle ³⁷; and the early connection which he formed with the principal leaders of Athens, and the neighbouring republics, contributed, perhaps, in no small degree, to the success of his future designs ³⁸.

His seasonable appearance in Macedon, after the defeat and death of Perdiccas, suddenly changed the fortune of that seemingly devoted kingdom. Yet our admiration of Philip ought not to make us overlook the favourable circumstances which seconded his abilities, and conspired to promote his success. The places of strength built by Archelaus furnished a secure retreat to the remains of Perdiccas's army; the Macedonians, though conquered, were not subdued; they had considerable garrisons in the fortresses and walled towns scattered over the kingdom ³⁹; their whole forces had not been engaged in the unfortunate battle with the Illyrians ⁴⁰; and those fierce invaders, impatient of delay, and only solicitous for plunder, having ravaged the open country, returned home to enjoy the fruits of their violence and rapine. They probably intended soon to assault Macedon with increased numbers, and to complete their devasta-

The Illyrians evacuate Macedon.

³⁵ Athenæus, l. xi. *Ælian*, l. iv. c. xix.

³⁶ Isocratis *Epistolæ*, & *Oratio ad Philippum*.

³⁷ Aristotle at this time lived in the Academy with Plato, where, most probably, Philip first saw him. *Dionys. Halicarnas. Epist. ad Ammæum*.

³⁸ *Demosthen. passim*.

³⁹ *Thucyd. l. xi. p. 168*.

⁴⁰ Athenæus, l. xi. p. 506.

tions ;

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tions; but they seem to have been alike incapable to concert or to pursue any permanent plan of conquest; and being distinguished, as historians relate, by their blooming complexions, active vigour, and longevity ⁴¹, they were not less distinguished by that irregular and capricious mode of acting, and that inattention to remote consequences, which characterise the manners of Barbarians.

State of
Thrace
and Pæo-
nia.

The warriors of Pæonia and Thrace ⁴² were less formidable by their numbers, and equally contemptible for their ignorance and indocility. In early times, the Pæonians indeed had been regarded as a tribe less savage, and more considerable ⁴³ than their Macedonian neighbours; but the former had remained stationary, in the rudeness of their primitive state, while the latter had been improved by a Grecian colony, and by frequent communication and intercourse with the Grecian republics. Of the Thracians we have had occasion to speak in the preceding parts of this work. The destructive ravages of Seuthes ⁴⁴ represent the ordinary condition of that unsettled and inhospitable country, sometimes united under one chief, more frequently divided among many, whose mutual hostilities banished agriculture, industry, and every useful art. Exclusive of the Grecian settlements on the coast, Thrace contained not any city, nor even any considerable town. The Barbarian Cotys, who was

⁴¹ Lucian. in Macrobiis, & Cornel. Alexand. apud Plinium, lib. vii. cap. clvii.

⁴² Cornel. Nepos in Iphicrat. Xenoph. Anab. l. vii. p. 393.

⁴³ Hippocrat. de Epidem.

⁴⁴ See vol. iii. p. 235, & seqq.

dignified with the title of king, led a wandering life, encamping on the banks of rivers with his flocks and followers ⁴⁵. War and pasturage formed the only sources of his grandeur, and even the only means of his subsistence.

Such were the first enemies with whom Philip had to contend. Their own capricious unsteadiness delivered him from the Illyrians. To the Pæonians, who ravaged the north, he either sent a deputation, or applied in person; and partly by bribes, partly by artful promises and flattery, persuaded the invaders to retire. The same arts prevailed with the selfish king of Thrace ⁴⁶, whose avarice readily sacrificed the cause of Pausanias, while Philip thought the remaining wealth of Macedon usefully consumed in removing those barbarous foes, that he might resist, with undivided strength, the more formidable invasion of Argæus and the Athenians.

The Athenian fleet already anchored before the harbour of Methoné; Argæus, with his numerous followers, had encamped in the province of Pieria; and their united forces prepared to march northward to Edeffa, or Ægæ, the ancient capital of Macedon, where they expected to be joined by a powerful party, whom fear or inclination would bring to the standard of the banished king. The Macedonians

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Philip disarms the resentment of those countries.

Philip declared king of Macedon. Olymp. cv. i. A. C. 360.

⁴⁵ Athenæus, l. xii. p. 331.

⁴⁶ Diodor. Sicul. l. xvi. sect. 3. Horace alludes to these events:

— diffidit urbium
Portas vir Macedo, & subruit amulos
Reges muneribus.

Lib. iii. Ode 16.

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who adhered to the interest of Perdiccas, or rather of his infant son, had been dispirited by the recent victory of the Illyrians, and the misfortunes consequent on that event. But the manly exhortations, and undaunted deportment of Philip, roused them from their despair. They admired the dexterity with which he had disarmed the resentment of the Thracians and Pæonians. His graceful person, insinuating address, and winning affability, qualities which he possessed in a very uncommon degree⁴⁷, gained the affections of the Macedonians, who either recollected, or were studiously reminded of, a prophecy⁴⁸, that announced great glory to their nation under the reign of the son of Amyntas. In an assembly held at Ægæ, they exclaimed, with one consent, "This is the man whom the gods point out as the founder of the Macedonian greatness. The dangerous condition of the times admits not of an infant reign. Let us obey the celestial voice, and entrust the sceptre to hands alike worthy to hold, and able to defend it⁴⁹." This proposal seemed not extraordinary in a country which had been long accustomed to interruptions in the lineal order of succession. Amyntas was set aside, and Philip, who had hitherto possessed

⁴⁷ *Æschin. de falsa Legatione.*

⁴⁸ In the Sibylline verses preserved in Pausanias (in Achaic.) Philip is named as the author of the Macedonian greatness, and the destruction of the kingdom is foretold under another Philip. These verses, though evidently composed after the event, serve to confirm the fact, that the superstition of the multitude was wrought upon for the purposes of Philip. *Justin. l. vii. c. vi.*

⁴⁹ *Ibid. idem.*

only the delegated power of regent, was invested with the royal title and authority⁵⁰.

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While all ranks of men were thus animated with affectionate admiration of their young king, the obsolete claims of Argæus could only be maintained by arms. Attended by his Athenian allies, he marched towards Edeffa; but that city shut its gates against him. Dispirited by this repulse, he made no farther attempts to gain admission into any of the Macedonian cities, but directed his course backward to Methoné. Philip, who had now collected sufficient strength to take the field, harassed his retreat, cut his rear to pieces, and defeated him in a general engagement, in which Argæus himself fell, with the flower of his army. The rest, whether Greeks or Barbarians, were made prisoners of war⁵¹.

He defeats
the pre-
tender
Argæus,
and his
Athenian
auxilia-
ries.

It was on this occasion that Philip first displayed that deep and artful policy, which, in the course of a long reign, gained him such a powerful ascendant over the passions of other men, and enabled him uniformly to govern his own by the interest of his ambition. In the midst of prosperity, his proud and lofty spirit must have been highly provoked by the Athenians, as well as by the followers of Argæus; and the barbarous maxims and practices which prevailed in that age, left him at full liberty to wreak his vengeance on the unhappy prisoners of both, who had fallen into his hands.

Uncom-
mon
treatment
of the
Athenian
and Ma-
cedonian
prisoners.

⁵⁰ Diodorus, l. xvi. sect. 3.

⁵¹ Diodorus, *ibid.* & Demosth. in Aristocrat.

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But the interest of Philip required him rather to soothe than to irritate the people of Athens, and to obtain by good offices (what he could not command by force) the confidence of his Macedonian subjects. The captives of the latter nation were called into his presence, rebuked with gentleness and humanity, admitted to swear allegiance to their new master, and promiscuously distributed in the body of his army. The Athenian prisoners were treated in a manner still more extraordinary⁵². Instead of demanding any ransom for their persons, he restored their baggage unexamined, and entertained them at his table with such condescending hospitality, that they returned home, full of admiration for the young king, and deeply persuaded of his attachment and respect for their republic⁵³.

Philip
amuses
the Athe-
nians with
a treaty
of peace
and
friend-
ship.
Olymp.
cv. 2.
A. C. 359.

They had only time to blaze forth the praises of Philip, when his ambassadors arrived at Athens⁵⁴. He knew that the loss of Amphipolis principally excited the resentment of the Athenians; he knew that the interest of Macedon required that resentment to be appeased. Impressed with these ideas, he renounced all jurisdiction over Amphipolis,

⁵² The fair side of Philip's character is described by Diodor. l. xvi. p. 510, & seqq. and 539. By Just. l. ix. c. viii. The most disadvantageous description of him is given by Demosthenes, *passim*, and by Athenæus, l. iv. c. xix. l. vi. c. xvii. & l. x. c. x. Cicero seems not to have regarded the assertions of Demosthenes, when, in speaking of Philip and Alexander, he says, "Alter semper magnus, alter sæpe turpissimus." But the artificial character of Philip, which varied with his interest, merits neither the panegyrics nor invectives too liberally bestowed on it.

⁵³ Demosthenes in Aristocrat.

⁵⁴ Ibid.

which

which was formally declared a free and independent city, subject only to the government of its own equitable laws⁵⁵. This measure, together with the distinguished treatment of the Athenian prisoners, insured the success of his embassy. An ancient treaty was renewed, that had long subsisted between his father Amyntas and the Athenians. That capricious and unsteady people, not less susceptible of gratitude, than prone to anger, were thus lulled into repose, at a time when Fortune having placed them at the head of Greece, both their present power and ancient glory urged them to take the front of the battle against Philip. Confiding in the insidious treaty with that prince, they engaged in a ruinous war with their allies⁵⁶; and ceased, during several years, to make any opposition to the ambitious designs of the Macedonian.

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The young king having given such illustrious proofs of his abilities in negotiation and war, availed himself of the affectionate admiration of his subjects to establish, during a season of tranquillity, such institutions as might maintain and extend his own power, and confirm the solid grandeur of Macedon. The laws and maxims which prevailed in the heroic ages, and which, as we have already observed, had been early introduced into that kingdom, circumscribed the royal authority within very narrow bounds. The chiefs and nobles, especially in the more remote provinces, regarded themselves as the rivals and equals of their sovereign. In

Philip institutes the order of *δορυφοροι*, *spear-men*, *companions*. Olymp. cv. 2. A. C. 359.

⁵⁵ Polyæn. Stratag. l. iv. c. 17.

⁵⁶ See vol. iii. c. xxxii.

at length conquered for themselves, and divided the spoils of the ancient world.

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It is ignorantly said by some writers ⁶², that Philip, in the first year of his reign, invented the phalanx, a body of six thousand men, armed with short swords, fit either for cutting or thrusting; strong bucklers, four feet in length, and two and a half in breadth; and pikes fourteen cubits long, which, usually arranged sixteen deep, formed the main battle of the Macedonians. But this is nothing different from the armour and arrangement which had always prevailed among the Greeks, and which Philip adopted in their most perfect form; nor is there reason to think that a prince, who knew the danger of changing what the experience of ages had approved, made any alteration in the weapons or tactics of that people ⁶³. His attention was more judiciously directed to procure, in sufficient abundance, arms, horses, and other necessary instruments of war; in reviewing and

His mili-
tary
arrange-
ments.

⁶² Diodorus Siculus, l. xvi. f. 3. and all the Roman writers of Greek history. It was natural for the Romans, who began to know Greece and Macedon almost at the same time, and who found the phalanx most complete in the latter, to suppose it invented in that country.

⁶³ The improvement in the countermarch, to which Philip gave the appearance of advancing, instead of retreating, mentioned by Ælian in his tactics, c. xxviii. was borrowed, as this author tells us, from the Lacedæmonians. If Philip increased the phalanx, usually less numerous, to six thousand men, this was far from an improvement; and the latter kings of Macedon, who swelled it to sixteen thousand, only rendered that order of battle more unwieldy and inconvenient. The highest perfection of Grecian tactics is to be found in Xenophon's expedition. See vol. iii. c. xxvi. p. 208, & seqq. See also Polyb. l. xvii. p. 764. & Liv. l. xlv. c. 40.

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Conquers
Pæonia.
Olymp.
c. 3.
A. C. 358.

exercising his troops; and in accustoming them to that austere and laborious life⁶⁴, which is the best preparation for the field.

The military resources which his activity had provided, his ambition did not allow to remain long unemployed. The death of Agis, the most warlike chieftain, or, as he is called by an historian⁶⁵, king of the Pæonians, drew Philip into the field, to revenge recent injuries which those Barbarians had inflicted on Macedon. Among a people where the laws of peace or war are neglected or unknown, almost every thing depends on the precarious character of their leaders. Deprived of the valour of Agis, the Pæonians lost all hopes of defence. Philip over-ran their country without resistance; carried off slaves and plunder; imposed a tribute on their chiefs; took hostages; and reduced Pæonia to an absolute dependence on Macedon.

Defeats
the Illy-
rians, and
extends
his terri-
tory to the
Ionian
sea.

It is probable that, according to the practice of the age, he permitted or required a certain number of the vanquished to follow his standard; but the Pæonians were no sooner reduced, than Philip, to whom all seasons seemed alike proper for war, undertook a winter's campaign against Bardyllis and the Illyrians, the hereditary enemies of his family and kingdom. He marched towards the frontier of Illyria⁶⁶ at the head of ten thousand foot

⁶⁴ Polyænus, l. iv. c. 3. Frontin, Strat. l. iv. c. 1.

⁶⁵ Diodorus, l. xvi. sect. 4.

⁶⁶ The Greek name of this country is *Ιλλυρίς*, but more commonly *ἡ Ἰλλυρία*, from its inhabitants. Vid. Arrian, l. i. passim.

foot and six hundred horse, and, before entering the country, animated the resentment and valour of his troops by a military oration, after the custom of the Greeks, whose manners he seemed, on every occasion, ambitious to imitate. Indignation of past injuries, the honour of his subjects, and the glory of his crown, might be topics proper to influence the Macedonian soldiers⁶⁷, who could not fully enter into the more refined motives of their sovereign. Illyria had been extended on the east, to the prejudice of Macedon, which it totally excluded from the excellent harbours on the Hadriatic⁶⁸. This was an important consideration to a prince, who seems to have early meditated the raising of a naval power. Beside this, it was impossible for Philip to undertake with safety the other measures which he had in view, should he leave his kingdom exposed to the predatory incursions of a neighbouring enemy, who, unless they feared Macedon, must always be formidable to that country. Directed by such solid principles of policy, rather than governed by resentment, or allured by the splendour of victory, Philip proceeded for-

The Latin name is *Illyricum*; most English writers of ancient history use *Illyria*, probably from the French *Illyrie*. The Greek *Ιλλυρίς* is described by Strabo, l. vii. p. 317. It comprehended the eastern shore of the Hadriatic, between Epirus and Istria. The Latin *Illyricum* had a signification far more extensive. See Gibbon's History, vol. i. p. 27.

⁶⁷ The heads of the speech are given, indirectly, in the fragments of Theopompus.

⁶⁸ Strabo says, *ἀπαντα τοις Ιλλυρικον* (scilicet *χωρον*) *σφοδρα εὐλόμενον εἶναι*; and adds, that the shore of Illyria is as abundant, as the opposite coast of Italy is defective, in good harbours. Strabo, l. vii.

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ward, with the caution necessary to be observed in an hostile territory. After a fruitless negotiation, Bardyllis met him in the field with an adequate body of infantry, but with only four hundred horse. The precise scene of the engagement is unknown. The Macedonian phalanx attacked the Illyrian column⁶⁹ in front, while the targeteers and light-armed troops galled its flanks, and the cavalry harassed its rear. The Illyrians, thus surrounded on every side, were crushed between two opposite assaults, without having an opportunity to exert their full strength⁷⁰. Their resistance, however, must have been vigorous, since seven thousand were left on the field of battle, and with them their gallant leader Bardyllis, who fell, at the age of ninety, fighting bravely on horseback. The loss of their experienced chief, and of the flower of their youthful warriors, broke the strength and courage of the Illyrian tribes, who sent a deputation to Philip, humbly craving peace, and submitting their fortune to the will of the conqueror. Philip granted them the same terms⁷¹ which he had

⁶⁹ The Illyrians were drawn up in the order of battle called *πλευθιον*, from *πλευρα*, a brick; which clearly points out its form,

⁷⁰ Frontinus *Stratag.* l. ii. c. 3.

⁷¹ It should seem from Diodorus, that the Illyrians had entertained the same superstitious terror of neglecting the interment of the dead, which prevailed among the Greeks. Yet Diodorus, perhaps, only used a privilege too common among historians, of transferring their own feelings to those concerning whom they write. He says, that Philip “restored their dead, and erected a trophy.” Pausanias (in *Bœotic.*) denies that either Philip or his son Alexander ever erected any of those monuments of victory; which practice, he says, was contrary to a Macedonian maxim, *εστα-*

had lately imposed on the Pæonians. *That* part of their country which lies east of the lake Lychnidus he joined to Macedon; and probably built a town and settled a colony on the side of the lake, which watered a fertile country, and abounded in different kinds of fish, highly esteemed by the ancients. The town and lake of Lychnidus were fifty miles distant from the Ionian sea; but such was the ascendant that the arms and policy of Philip acquired over his neighbours, that the inhabitants of the intermediate district soon adopted the language and manners of their conquerors; and their territory, hitherto unconnected with any foreign power, sunk into such an absolute dependence on Macedon, that many ancient geographers considered it as a province of that country ⁷².

Having settled the affairs of Illyria, Philip returned home, not to enjoy the sweets of victory and repose, but to pursue more important and more arduous designs than those which he had hitherto carried on with such signal success. He had secured and extended the northern and western frontier of Macedon; but the rich southern shores, chiefly inhabited by Greeks, presented at once a more tempting prize, and a more formidable enemy. The confederacy of Olynthus, having thrown off

Philip's
designs
against
Amphi-
polis.
Olymp.
cv. 4.
A. C. 357.

established as early as the time of Caranus, when a lion having overturned one of his trophies, the wise founder of the monarchy regarded this event as a warning to forbear raising them in future. But the medals of Philip and Alexander, of which the reverse is sometimes charged with trophies, refute the assertion of Pausanias; which is likewise contradicted by Arrian, Curtius, and all the writers of the life, or expedition, of Alexander.

⁷² Strabo, l. vii. p. 327.

the

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the yoke of Sparta, had become more powerful than ever. It could send into the field ten thousand heavy-armed men, and a large body of well-disciplined cavalry. Most towns of the Chalcidicé had become its allies or subjects; and this populous and wealthy province, together with Pangæus on the right, and Pieria on the left, the cities of both which were either independent, or subject to the Athenians, formed a barrier sufficient not only to guard the Grecian states against Macedon, but even to threaten the safety of that kingdom. Every motive concurred to direct the active policy of Philip towards acquisitions immediately necessary in themselves, and essential to the completion of his remote purposes. In the course of twenty years he accomplished his designs, and conquered Greece; often varying his means, never changing his end; and notwithstanding the circumstances and events that continually thwarted his ambition, we behold the opening and gradual progress of a vast plan, every step in which paved the way for that which followed, till the whole ended in the most signal triumph, perhaps, ever attained by human prudence, over courage and fortune.

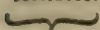
Import-
ance of
that place.

The importance of Olynthus and Chalcidicé could not divert the sagacity of Philip from Amphipolis, which he regarded as a more necessary, though less splendid, conquest. The possession of Amphipolis, which would connect Macedon with the sea, and secure to that kingdom many commercial advantages, opened a road to the woods and mines of mount Pangæus, the former of which was

was so essential to the raising of a naval power, and the latter to the forming and keeping on foot a sufficient military force. The place itself Philip in the beginning of his reign had declared independent, to avoid a rupture with the Athenians, who still asserted their pretensions to their ancient colony. But their measures to regain Amphipolis had hitherto been rendered ineffectual by the caprice or perfidy of Charidemus, a native of Eubœa, who, from the common level of a soldier of fortune, had risen to the command of a considerable body of mercenaries, frequently employed by the indolence and licentiousness of the Athenians, a people extremely averse both to the fatigue and restraint of personal service. They determined, however, to renew their attempts for recovering their dominion, while the Amphipolitans, having tasted the sweets of liberty, prepared to maintain their independence.

In this posture of affairs, the hostile designs of Philip, which all his artifice had not been able to conceal from the suspicious jealousy of the new republic, alarmed the magistrates of Amphipolis, and obliged them to seek protection from the Olynthians, who readily admitted them into their confederacy. Emboldened by this alliance, they set at defiance the menaces of their neighbouring, as well as of their more distant, enemy; and their imprudent insolence readily furnished Philip with specious grounds of hostility. The Olynthians perceived that the indignation of this prince must soon break forth into action, and overwhelm the

Amphipolis enters into the Olynthian confederacy.

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Amphipolitans; while they themselves might be involved in the ruin of their new confederate. To anticipate this danger, they sent ambassadors to Athens, requesting an alliance with that republic against the natural enemy of both states, and an enemy whose successful activity rendered him a just object of terror.

The intrigues of Philip prevent an alliance between Athens and Olynthus.

This alliance, had it taken place, must have given a fatal blow to the rising greatness of Macedonia, which as yet was incapable to contend with the united strength of Olynthus and Athens. The spies and emissaries of Philip (for he had already begun to employ those odious, but necessary, instruments of policy) immediately gave the alarm. The prince himself was deeply sensible of the danger, and determined to repel it with equal vigour and celerity. His agents reached Athens before any thing was concluded with the Olynthian deputies. The popular leaders and orators were bribed and gained; the magistrates and senate were flattered and deceived by the most plausible declarations and promises. A negotiation was immediately set on foot, by which Philip stipulated to conquer Amphipolis for the Athenians, on condition that they surrendered to him Pydna, a place of far less importance. He promised, besides, to confer many other advantages on the republic, which it was not proper at present to mention, but which time would reveal⁷³. Amused by the arti-

⁷³ Καὶ τὸ θυλλοῦμενον ποτε ἀπορρητὸν ἐκεῖνο. Demosthen. Olynth. i. p. 6. edit. Wolfii. It is strange that Wolfius has changed the order of the Olynthian orations, so distinctly marked by Dion. Halicarn. in his letter to Ammæus.

fices of the Macedonian, deceived by the perfidy of their own magistrates, and elated with the hopes of recovering Amphipolis, the great object of their ambition, the senate of the Five Hundred (for the transaction was carried on with such haste as allowed not time for assembling the people) rejected with disdain the overtures of the Olynthians⁷⁴, who returned home disgusted and indignant.

They had scarcely time to communicate to their countrymen the angry passions which agitated their own breasts, when the ambassadors of Philip craved audience in the assembly of Olynthus. That artful prince affected to condole with the Olynthians on the affront which they had received from the insolence of Athens; but at the same time testified his surprise, that they should condescend to court the distant protection of that proud republic, when they might find in Macedon an ally near at hand, who wished for nothing more earnestly than to enter into equal and lasting engagements with their confederacy. As a proof of his moderation and sincerity, he offered immediately to put them in possession of Anthemus, a town of some importance in their neighbourhood, the jurisdiction of which had long been claimed by the kings of Macedon⁷⁵; at the same time assuring them of his intentions to deserve their gratitude by still more important services, and particularly by employing his arms to

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Artifices
by which
he gained
the Olyn-
thians.

⁷⁴ Demosthenes expresses it in the strongest terms, as if they had driven the Olynthians from Athens: "ὅτε Ολυθίας ἀπηλαυισὺν τιμὴς εἰβένδε." Demosthen. Olynth. i. p. 6.

⁷⁵ Demosthen. Philip. ii. 4.

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reduce the cities of Pydna and Potidæa, commanding the opposite sides of the Thermaic gulph; places, therefore, of considerable value, which he wished to see dependent on Olynthus, rather than, as at present, subject to Athens.

Philip be-
siegues Am-
phipolis.
Olymp.
cv. 4.
A.C. 357.

The immediate offers of Philip, his professions and promises, in which, as they suited his interest, he doubtless was sincere, and still more, his secret practices with some powerful men of Olynthus, effectually prevailed with that republic to abandon the cause of Amphipolis, whose imprudent inhabitants had been at little pains to prevent those offences and complaints which naturally arise between the jealous members of an unequal confederacy. By these intrigues, the Macedonian not only removed all opposition to his views on the part of the Olynthians, but acquired the sincere friendship of that people, who were ready to assist his arms, and to second his most ambitious designs. He therefore prepared for action, because he might now act with safety; marched rapidly towards Amphipolis, and pressed that city with a vigorous siege. The inhabitants, deeply affected by the near prospect of a calamity which they had taken little care to prevent, had recourse, in their distress, to Athens. Thither they dispatched Hierax and Stratocles, two of their most distinguished citizens, to represent the danger of an alliance between Philip and Olynthus; to intreat the Athenians to accept the sincere repentance of their unfortunate colony, and once more to take Amphipolis under the protection of their fleet.

At

At that time the Athenians were deeply engaged in the social war; yet the hopes of recovering so important a settlement might have directed their attention to Macedon, had not the vigilant policy of Philip sent them a letter, renewing the assurances of his friendship, acknowledging their pretensions to the city, which he actually besieged, and of which he artfully said, that, in terms of his recent engagement, he hoped shortly to put them in possession. Amused by these insinuating representations, the Athenians treated the deputies of Amphipolis with as little respect as they had lately done those of Olynthus. The besieged city was thus deprived of all hopes of relief; Philip pressed the attack with new vigour; a breach was made in the walls; and the Amphipolitans, after an obstinacy of defence which could have no other effect than to provoke the resentment of the conqueror, at length surrendered at discretion⁷⁶.

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Amuses
the Athe-
nians.

Amphipolis
surrenders.
Olymp.
cv. 4.
A. C. 357.

The prudent Macedonian always preferred his own profit to the punishment of his enemies. It was his interest to preserve and to aggrandise, not to depopulate, Amphipolis. He banished a few daring leaders, whose seditious or patriotic spirit might disturb the measures of his government. The bulk of the citizens were treated with sufficient mildness. Their territory was reunited to Macedon, from which Philip resolved that it should never be dismembered, notwithstanding his promises to the Athenians.

Is annexed
to Macedon.

⁷⁶ Diodor. l. xvi. c. viii. Demosthen. Olynth. iii. sect. 4—7.

That

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Philip puts
the Olyn-
thians in
possession
of Pydna
and Poti-
dæa.

That he might arm himself against the resentment of a people, whom, if he could not deceive, he was determined to defy, he cultivated, with great earnestness, the Olynthian confederacy; and having besieged and taken the towns of Pydna and Potidæa, he readily ceded them to the Olynthians, who had but feebly assisted him in making these conquests. In the whole transaction Philip affected to act merely as an auxiliary. The Athenian garrison in Potidæa, who had surrendered themselves prisoners of war, he took under his immediate protection, and dismissed them without ransom, artfully lamenting that the necessity of his affairs, and his alliance with Olynthus, obliged him to oppose the interests of their republic, for which he entertained the most sincere respect⁷⁷.

Philip
pursues
his con-
quests in
Thrace.

It is impossible that the Athenians, weak and credulous as they were, should have been the dupes of this gross artifice. But they could not immediately withdraw their exertions from the social war, the events of which grew continually more unprosperous. Philip, ever vigilant and active, profited of this favourable diversion, to pursue his conquests in Thrace, to which the possession of Amphipolis afforded him an opening. In the beginning of his reign, he had found it necessary to purchase a peace from Cotys, who still governed that country, but from whom Philip could not actually apprehend any formidable opposition. The late acquaintance of that Barbarian with the Grecian

⁷⁷ Diodor. l. xvi. c. viii. & Demosth. Philipp. ii. & Olynth. i.

religion and manners, which he had adopted in consequence of his connection with Iphicrates and the Athenians, served only to deprave his faculties and to cloud his reason. We should pronounce absolutely mad, the man who fancied himself enamoured of Minerva; but the ancients, who believed that the gods often appeared in a human form, regarded with more tenderness this frantic enthusiasm. Cotty was allowed to possess his freedom and his crown, whether, with his ambulatory court, he traversed the inhospitable mountains of Thrace, or pitched his tents on the fragrant banks of the Strymon or the Nessus; or, to enjoy with more privacy the favours of his celestial mistress, penetrated into the deep recesses of the beautiful forests which adorned his kingdom.

At the approach of the Macedonians, having abandoned the grove of Onocarsis, the favourite scene of his wild and romantic enjoyments⁷⁸, he endeavoured to stop the progress of the enemy by a letter; but a letter from such a man could excite nothing but ridicule or pity. Philip penetrated eastward thirty miles beyond Amphipolis, to the town of Crenidæ, situated at the foot of Mount Pangæus, and distant ten miles from the sea. He admired the solitary beauty of the place, which being bounded on one side by the sea, and on the other by lofty mountains, was watered by many streams and rivulets, which, tempering the dryness of the soil, produced the finest and most delicious

Takes possession of the gold-mines at Crenidæ, afterwards called Philippi. Olymp. cv. 4. A.C. 357.

⁷⁸ Theopomp. apud Athenæum, l. xii. p. 531.

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fruit and flowers, especially roses, of a peculiar hue and fragrancý. But the attention of Philip was attracted by objects more important, by the gold-mines in that neighbourhood, formerly wrought by colonies from Thasos and from Athens, but totally neglected since the ignorant Thracians had become masters of Crenidæ. Philip expelled those Barbarians from a possession which they seemed unworthy to hold. Having descended into the gold-mines, he traced, by the help of torches, the decayed labours of the ancient proprietors. By his care the water was drained off; the canals, broken or choaked up, were repaired; and the bosom of the earth was again opened and ransacked⁷⁹ with eager avidity by a prince who well knew the value of the precious metals. A Macedonian colony was planted at Crenidæ, which thenceforth assumed the name of Philippi⁸⁰, a name bestowed also on the golden coins struck by order of Philip⁸¹, to the annual amount of nearly a thousand talents, or two hundred thousand pounds sterling⁸².

Philip
settles the
affairs of
Thessaly.

Having effected the main purpose of his Thracian expedition, the prudence of Philip set bounds

⁷⁹ Senec. Natur. Quæst. l. v. p. 760. & Demosthen. in Leptin.

⁸⁰ The fatal defeat and death of Brutus and Cassius have eclipsed, in their melancholy splendour, all the preceding events which distinguish Philippi. Their liberty expired, and virtue yielded to force.

Cum fracta virtus, & minaces

Turpe solum tetigere mento.

HORACE.

⁸¹ Regale numisma Philippos.

⁸² Diodor. l. xvi. c. ix. Justin. l. viii. c. iii. speaks differently; but the whole of that chapter bears evident marks of ignorance and error.

to his conquests in that country, and carried his arms into Thessaly, which, by the murder of Alexander of Pheræ, had got three tyrants instead of one. These were, Tisiphonus, Pitholaus, and Lycophron, the brothers-in-law, the assassins, and the successors of Alexander. The resentment of the Thessalians, and the valour of the Macedonian troops, totally defeated those oppressors of their country, who were reduced to such humiliating terms as seemed sufficient to prevent them from being thenceforth formidable either to their own subjects or to their neighbours⁸³. The Thessalians, who were susceptible of all impressions, but incapable of preserving any, concluded, in the first emotions of their gratitude, an agreement with their deliverer, by which they surrendered to him the revenues arising from their fairs and towns of commerce, as well as all the conveniencies of their harbours and shipping; and extraordinary as this cession was, Philip found means to render it effectual and permanent⁸⁴.

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Advantages which he derived from that country.

He immediately contracted an alliance with Arybbas, king of Epirus, a small principality which skirted the western frontier of Thessaly. In his excursions from Thebes, Philip had early seen Olympias, the sister of that prince, whose wit and spirit, joined to the lively graces of her youth and beauty, had made a deep impression on his heart. They were initiated, at the same time, in the mysteries of Ceres, during the triennial festival in the

Philip marries Olympias. Olymp. cv. 4. A. C. 357.

⁸³ Diodor. l. xvi. c. xiv. & Plut. in Pelopid.

⁸⁴ Demosth. Philip. I. 10. Polyæn. Stratag. l. iv. c. xix.

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isle of Samothrace, which had been long as much distinguished as Eleusis⁸⁵ itself, by the peculiar worship and protection of this bountiful goddess. But the active ambition which employed and engrossed the first years of Philip's reign had probably banished the memory of his love, when his expedition into Thessaly recalled the image of Olympias. Their first interview naturally revived his tender passions; and, as the kings of Epirus were lineally descended from Achilles, the match appeared every way suitable; Arybbas readily yielded his consent, and the beautiful princess was conducted into Macedon⁸⁶.

During the solemnities of his nuptials, the neighbouring princes take arms.

The nuptials of Philip were solemnised at Pella with unusual pomp and splendour. Several months were destined to religious shows and processions, to gymnastic games and exercises, to musical and dramatic entertainments. The young and fortunate prince naturally took a principal share in all these scenes of festivity; and it is probable that, amidst the more elegant amusements of his court, Philip might discover that strong propensity to vicious indulgence, that delight in buffoons and flatterers, and other disgraceful ministers of his more criminal pleasures, which, however counteracted and balanced by his ambition and magnanimity, disgraced and tarnished the succeeding glories of his reign. It is certain that the voluptuous inactivity in which he seemed sunk, encouraged the hopes of his enemies⁸⁷. The tributary princes of

⁸⁵ See vol. iii. c. xxi. p. 46.

⁸⁶ Diodor. l. xvi. c. xxii.

⁸⁷ Justin. l. vii. c. vi.

Pæonia and Illyria prepared to rebel; the king of Thrace engaged in their designs, which were concerted with more caution than is usual with Barbarians; and this general conspiracy of neighbouring states might have repressed for a while the fortune of Macedon, if Philip had not been seasonably informed of the danger by his faithful partisans and emissaries in those countries.

Early in the ensuing spring he took the field with the flower of the Macedonian troops. Parmenio, the general in whom he had most confidence, crushed the rebellion in Illyria. Philip was equally successful in Pæonia and Thrace. While he returned from the latter, he was informed of the victory of Parmenio. A second messenger acquainted him that his horses had gained the prize in the chariot-races at the Olympic games; a victory which he regarded as far more honourable, and which, as it proved him a legitimate son of Greece, he carefully commemorated, by impressing a chariot on his coins. Almost at the same time a third messenger arrived to tell him that Olympias had brought forth a prince at Pella; to whom, as born amidst such auspicious circumstances, the diviners announced the greatest prosperity³³ and glory.

Such a rapid tide of good fortune did not over-set the wisdom of Philip, if we may judge by the first authentic transaction which immediately followed these events. This was the correspondence

Philip's letter to Aristotle, announcing the birth of Alexander.

³³ Plut. in Alexand.

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with Aristotle the philosopher, whose merit Philip had early discerned at Athens, when he still resided with his master Plato. The first letter (fortunately preserved) is written with a brevity which marks the king and the man of genius. "Know that a son is born to us. We thank the gods, not so much for their gift, as for bestowing it at a time when Aristotle lives. We assure ourselves that you will form him a prince worthy of his father, and worthy of Macedon." Aristotle commenced this illustrious employment about thirteen years afterwards⁸⁹, when the opening mind of Alexander might be supposed capable of receiving the benefit of his instructions. The success of his labours will be explained in the sequel. The fortune of Alexander surpassed that of all other conquerors as much as his virtues surpassed his fortune.

⁸⁹ The chronology appears from Dionysius of Halicarnassus's letter to Ammæus, who, in order to prove that Demosthenes had attained the highest perfection in the practice, before Aristotle had delivered the theory, of eloquence, marks, with great exactness, the principal events in the lives of the philosopher and orator. Aristotle, a native of Stagira, came to Athens in his eighteenth year, 367 A. C. There he continued twenty years, as the scholar or assistant of Plato, who died 348 A. C. Aristotle left Athens on the death of his master, and spent three years at Atarnæus, and two at Mytelené. From thence he went to Macedon, in the forty-third year of his age, and 343 years A. C. He was employed eight years in the education of Alexander. He returned to Athens 335 A. C. taught twelve years in the Lycæum, and died the year following at Chalcis, ætat. sixty-three, A. C. 323, and a year after the death of Alexander. Dionysius ad Ammæum. He reckons by the Archons of Athens; I have substituted the years before Christ.

Yet the fame of the philofopher abundantly re-
pays the honour reflected on him by his royal
pupil, fince fixteen centuries after the fubver-
fion of Alexander's empire, the writings of Ari-
ftotle ftill maintained an unexampled afcendant
over the opinions, and even over the actions of
men.

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C H A P. XXXIV.

Philip's Prosperity.—Imprudent Measures of the Amphictyonic Council.—The Phocian, or Sacred War.—Philomelus seizes the Temple of Delphi.—Takes the Field against the Thebans and their Allies.—Defeat and Death of Philomelus.—Affairs of Thrace, Macedon, and Attica.—Onemarchus takes the Command of the Phocians—Encounters Philip in Thessaly.—He is defeated and slain.—Philip's Designs against Olynthus and Byzantium.—Traversed by the Athenians.—Phayllus takes the Command of the Phocians.—Philip marches towards Thermopylæ.—Anticipated by the Athenians.—Demosthenes's first Philippic.—Philip's Occupations at Pella.—His Vices—and Policy.

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Prosperity
of Philip
in the
fifth year
of his
reign.
Olymp.
cvii. 1.
A. C. 356.

PHILIP had now reigned almost five years. He had greatly enlarged the boundaries, he had still more augmented the revenues, of his kingdom. Pæonia, no longer the rival, was become an obsequious province of Macedon. At the expense of Thrace and Illyria, he had extended his frontier on the east to the sea of Thasos; on the west to the lake Lychnidus. He was master of Thessaly without having the trouble to govern it. He secured many commercial advantages by the possession of Amphipolis. His troops were numerous

merous and well disciplined; his large finances were regulated with œconomy; and the mines of Philippi furnished him with an annual resource alike useful to his designs, whether he pursued the ambitious career of foreign conquest, or set himself to build up and consolidate the internal grandeur of his dominions.

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The power of Philip was admired, and feared, by those who were unable to penetrate the deep principles of his policy, which alone rendered him really formidable. The first and most natural object of his desire was the territory of Olynthus, the most populous and fertile portion of the Macedonian coast. His second and far more arduous purpose was to obtain the sovereignty of Greece. But instead of discovering these designs, he had hitherto cultivated the Olynthians with a careful assiduity, and had deserved their gratitude by many solid and important services. His success had been complete, and if, elated by the many advantages which we have enumerated, he had already prepared to invade Greece, it is more than probable that the Olynthians would have consented to follow his standard. But Philip was sensible, that by snatching too eagerly at this glorious prize, he might destroy for ever his prospect of obtaining it. While the Athenians were occupied and harassed by the destructive war with their confederates, he had, indeed, embraced the opportunity to gain possession of several of their dependent settlements in Thrace and Macedon; colouring, however, these proceedings by the pretence of justice or necessity,

His profound and impenetrable policy.

and

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He carefully watches the imprudent measures of the Amphictyonic council ;

and tempering even his hostilities by many partial acts of kindness and respect. Before the social war was ended, the seeds of dissension, so profusely scattered in Greece, were likely to ripen into a new quarrel far more general and important. Philip patiently waited their maturity. His hopes were founded on the domestic animosities of Greece; but the too early discovery of his system might have united an hundred thousand¹ warriors against their common enemy; whereas, by the secret refinements of a slow and steady policy, he effected his vast purposes without being obliged, on any one occasion, to fight against thirty thousand men.

The Amphictyons having recovered their authority in consequence of the events which have formerly been described, began early to display those dangerous passions with which the exercise of uncontrouled power too naturally corrupts the heart. They pretended, that during the decline of their jurisdiction, many unwarrantable abuses had been introduced, which it became them to remedy. The rights of religion (they said), which it was their first duty to maintain, had been materially violated by the Phocians, who, alike regardless of the decision of the oracle, and of an Amphictyonic decree, had ploughed lands consecrated to

¹ The number is chosen as a very *moderate* medium between the two hundred and twenty thousand men, afterwards promised to Philip in the general convention of the States at Corinth for the service of the Persian expedition, and the eighty thousand which the Greeks actually raised against Xerxes, and which Thucydides says, that the Peloponnesian confederacy alone could send into Attica.

Apollo, and therefore withdrawn from agriculture². These lands, however, were confined to the narrow district between the river Cephissus and Mount Thurium, on the western frontier of Bœotia. The crime of the Phocians (if their useful labours deserve the name of crime) was neither great nor unprecedented, since the Locrians of Amphissa had long cultivated the Crissæan plain; a more extensive territory, and consecrated to the god by far more awful ceremonies³. But the proud tyranny of the Amphictyons, careless of such distinctions, fulminated an angry decree against Phocis, commanding the sacred lands to be laid waste, and imposing a heavy fine on that community.

It is believed that the Thebans, the enemies and neighbours of Phocis, and whose influence at that time predominated in the council, were the principal abettors of this arbitrary measure⁴; a supposition rendered probable by the ensuing deliberations of the Amphictyons. Their next sentence was directed against Sparta, to punish the injury of Phæbidas, who, in time of peace, had surprised and seized the Theban citadel. This breach of public faith, however criminal and flagrant, had been committed so many years before, that prudence required it to be for ever buried in obscurity. But, at the instigation of the Thebans, the Amphictyons brought it once more to light; commanded the Lacedæmonians to pay a fine of five hundred talents; decreed that the fine should

which are
principally
abetted by
the The-
bans;

² See vol. i. c. v. p. 224. ³ See vol. i. c. v. p. 222, & seqq.

⁴ Justin. l. viii. c. i. & seqq.

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 Lacedæmonians should be treated as public ene-
 mies to Greece⁵.

who excite
 the resent-
 ment of
 the Pho-
 cians.
 Olymp.
 cv. 4.
 A. C. 357.

The Phocians, singled out as the first victims of
 oppression, were deeply affected by their danger.
 To pay the money demanded of them exceeded
 their faculties. It would be grievous to desolate
 the fields which their own hands had cultivated
 with so much toil. The commands of the Am-
 phietyons were indeed peremptory; but that coun-
 cil had not on foot any sufficient force to ren-
 der them effectual, should the devoted objects of
 their vengeance venture to dispute their authority.
 This measure, daring as it seemed, was strongly
 recommended by Philomelus, whose popular elo-
 quence and valour gave him a powerful ascendant
 in Phocis. He possessed great hereditary wealth;
 contemned the national superstition; and being
 endowed with a bold ambitious spirit, he expected
 to rise, amidst the tumult of action and danger, to
 unrivalled pre-eminence in his republic. After
 repeated deliberations, in which he flattered the
 vanity, and tempted the avarice of his countrymen,
 by proving, that to them of right belonged the
 guardianship of the Delphian temple, and the im-
 mense treasures contained within its sacred walls⁶,

⁵ Diodor. l. xvi. c. xxiii. & seqq.

⁶ Philomelus cited the respectable authority of Homer:

Αὐτὰρ Φωκίων Σχιδίος καὶ Ἐπιστροφὸς ἤρχον

Ὅς Κυπαρίσσῳ εἶχον Πύθωνα τε πετρῆσσαν.

"But Schedius and Epistrophus led the Phocians, who inhabited
 Cyparissus, and the rocky Python," the ancient name of Delphi.
 he

he brought the majority of the senate and assembly into his opinion. As the properest instrument to execute his own measures, Philomelus was named general: the Phocian youth flocked to his standard; and his private fortune, as well the public revenues, were consumed in purchasing the mercenary aid of those needy adventurers, who abounded in every province of Greece.

The following year was employed by Philomelus in providing arms, in exercising his troops, and in an embassy which he undertook in person to Sparta. As that community had not discharged the fine imposed by the Amphictyons, the penalty was doubled, and the delinquents were condemned to pay a thousand talents. The exorbitance of this imposition might have justified the Spartans in following the example of Phocis, and setting the Amphictyons at defiance. But Archidamus, who possessed all the caution and address of his father Agesilaus, was unwilling to take a principal part in the first dangerous experiment, and to post himself in the front of battle, against the revered decrees of an assembly, considered as the legal guardian of national religion and liberty. He assured Philomelus that both himself and the Spartans fully approved his cause; that reasons of a temporary nature hindered their declaring themselves openly, but that he might depend on secret supplies of men and money?

The Phocians under Philomelus prepare for war, and engage the Spartans in their cause. Olymp. cvi. 1. A. C. 356.

7 Ὁ δὲ Ἀρχίδαμος ἀποδείξας τὸν λόγον, φανερώς μιν, κατὰ τὴν παρὸν, ἐκ ἔφρασε βοηθῆσαι, λαβεῖν δὲ πάντα συμπράξειν, χορηγῶν καὶ χρημάτων καὶ μισθοφορῆς. Diodor. l. xvi. p. 426.

Encou-

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Philomel-
lus seizes
the temple
of Delphi.
Olymp.
cvi. 2.
A.C. 355.

Encouraged by this assurance, and by a considerable sum^s immediately put into his hands, Philomelus, at his return, ventured on a measure not less audacious than unexpected. The temple of Delphi, so awfully guarded by superstition; was scarcely defended by any military force. Philomelus, having prepared the imagination of his followers for this bold enterprise, immediately conducted them towards Delphi, defeated the feeble resistance of the Thracidæ, who inhabited the neighbouring district, and entered the sacred city with the calm intrepidity of a conqueror. The Delphians, who expected no mercy from a man devoid of respect for religion, prepared themselves in silent horror, for beholding the complicated guilt of sacrilege and murder. But the countenance of Philomelus re-assured them, and his discourse totally dispelled their ill-grounded fears. He declared that he had come to Delphi with no hostile disposition against the inhabitants, with no sacrilegious designs against the temple. His principal motive was to emancipate the one and the other from the arbitrary proceedings of the Amphictyons, and to assert the ancient and unalienable prerogative of Phocis to be the patron and protector of the Delphian shrine. To the same purpose he scattered declarations through the different republics of Greece; his emissaries acquainted the Spartans that he had destroyed the brazen tablets containing the unjust decrees against Sparta and Phocis; they inflamed the resentment of the Athenians, naturally

^s Diodorus (l. xvi. p. 426.) says, fifteen talents.

hostile

hostile to Thebes; and both those republics came to the resolution of supporting the measures of Philomelus.

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The Thebans, on the other hand, who *directed*, and the Locrians, Theffalians, with other states of less consideration, who tamely *obeyed* the decrees of the Amphictyons, determined to take the field in defence of their insulted religion and violated laws. Their operations were conducted with that extreme slowness natural to confederacies. Philomelus acted with more vigour. He received little assistance from his distant allies. But, first, by imposing a heavy tax on the Delphians, who had been enriched by the devotion of Greece, and then, notwithstanding his declaration, by taking very undue liberties with the treasure of Apollo⁹, he collected above ten thousand mercenaries, men daring and profligate as himself, who sacrificed all scruples of religion to the hopes of dividing a rich spoil. Such at least was the general character of his followers. To the few who had more piety, or less avarice, he endeavoured to justify his measures by the authority of an oracle. The Pythia at first refused to mount the sacred tripod. Philomelus sternly commanded her. She obeyed with reluctance, observing, that being already master of Delphi, he might act without sanction or controul¹⁰. Philomelus waited for no other answer, but gladly interpreted the words as an acknow-

Employs
the sacred
treasure in
raising
mercena-
ries.

⁹ Diodorus sometimes acknowledges, and sometimes denies, that Philomelus meddled with the sacred treasure.

¹⁰ Αποφθεγγαμένης δ' αὐτῆς πρὸς τὴν ὑπεροχὴν τῆ βιαζομένης "ὅτι ἐξῆς αὐτῷ πρᾶτ' ἐιν ὁ θελήται." Diodor. p. 428.

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Takes
the field
against the
Thebans
and their
allies.
Olymp.
cvi. 2.
A.C. 355.

ledgment of his absolute authority ; and, with the address suitable to his situation and character, confirmed the auspicious declaration of the priests by the report of many favourable omens ¹¹.

Having obtained the supposed sanction of religion, Philomelus proceeded to fortify the temple and city of Delphi, in which he placed a strong garrison ; and, with the remainder of his forces, boldly marched forth to repel the incursions of the enemy. During two years, hostilities were carried on with various fortune against the Locrians and Thebans. Victory for the most part inclined to the Phocians ; but there happened not any decisive action, nor was the war memorable on any other account but that of the excessive cruelty mutually inflicted and suffered. The Phocian prisoners were uniformly condemned to death, as wretches convicted of the most abominable sacrilege and impiety ; and the resentment of their countrymen retaliated with equal severity on the unhappy captives whom the chance of war frequently put into their hands ¹².

Philomelus defeated.
Olymp.
cvi. 4.
A.C. 353.

As both armies anxiously expected reinforcements, they were unwilling to risk a general engagement, till chance rendered that measure unavoidable. Entangled among the woods and mountains of Phocis, the conveniency of forage attracted them towards the same point. The vanguard met unexpectedly near the town of Neone, and began to skirmish. A general and fierce action followed, in which the Phocians were repelled

¹¹ Diodor. p. 429.

¹² Ibid. p. 530, & seqq.

by superior numbers. Pathless woods, abrupt rocks and precipices, obstructed their retreat. In vain Philomelus strove with his voice and arm to rally the fugitives. He himself was carried along by the torrent to the brow of a precipice, afflicted with wounds, and still more with anguish and despair. The enemy advanced; it seemed impossible to escape their vengeance; the resolution of Philomelus was prompt and terrible; with a vigorous bound he sprang from the rock, thus eluding the torment of his own guilty conscience, and the resentment of his pursuers ¹³. While the Thebans and their allies admired this spectacle as a manifest indication of divine vengeance ¹⁴, Onomarchus, the lieutenant and brother of the Phocian general, collected and drew off the scattered remains of the vanquished army towards Delphi. The confederates determined to expel them from that holy place, and to inflict on the enemies of Greece and Heaven, a punishment similar to that to which the wrath of Apollo had driven the impious Philomelus ¹⁵.

Different causes concurred to prevent Philip on the one hand, and Athens and Sparta on the other, from taking a principal or early part in the Phocian war. The interested policy of Archidamus, The Spartans attempt to recover their dominion in

¹³ Diodorus hints, that had Philomelus been taken captive, his body would have been shockingly mangled: *Φοβούμενος τὴν ἐκ τῆς αἰχμαλωσίας αἰκίαν.* p. 432.

¹⁴ Such it appeared to future historians: *καὶ τὸτε τοῦ τρέποντος, ὅς τις τῶ δαίμονι δικὰς καταστρέψει τὸν εἶεν.* Diodor. *ibid.*

¹⁵ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 432.

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the Peloponnesus.
Olymp.
cvi. 3.
A.C. 353.

who directed with absolute authority the councils of Sparta, was less anxious to support the arms of his distant confederates, than solicitous to recover the Lacedæmonian dominion in Peloponnesus. The opportunity seemed favourable for this purpose, the Thebans being deeply engaged in another contest, and the Athenians in strict alliance with Sparta. For several years, the arms and intrigues of Archidamus were employed against the Messenians, Arcadians, and Argives. But his ambitious design failed of success; the inferior cities of Peloponnesus, roused by a common danger, confederated for their mutual defence; and Athens, though actually the ally of Sparta, was unwilling to abandon to the tyranny of that republic her more ancient and faithful allies, the Arcadians and Messenians ¹⁶.

The affairs
of Thrace
occupy
Philip and
the Athenians.

While the politics of the Peloponnesus formed a system apart, the sacred war shook the centre of Greece, and the affairs of Thrace occupied Philip and the Athenians. Cotys was dead; his sons, Kerfobleptes, Berisades, and Amadocus, were all dissatisfied with the partition of his dominions. While their hostilities against each other exhibited the odious picture of fraternal discord, the prizes for which they contended were successively carried off by Philip. The encroachments of that prince

¹⁶ The question appears to have occasioned warm debates in the Athenian assembly: the Spartan and Arcadian parties were animated with the utmost zeal; and, according to the lively observation of Demosthenes, the Athenian orators, had they not spoke the Attic dialect, would have appeared, the one half Spartans, the other Arcadians. Demosthen. pro Megalop. p. 83.

at length engaged Kerfobleptes, the most powerful of the co-heirs, to cede the Thracian Chersonesus to the Athenians, who sent Chares with a numerous fleet to take possession of that peninsula. The town of Sestos alone made resistance. It was taken by storm, and treated with great severity by Chares; while Philip besieged and took the far more important city of Methoné in Pieria. In this siege he lost an eye, a loss which he is said to have borne with impatience¹⁷, as the circumstances attending it were alike dishonourable to his judgment and humanity¹⁸.

It appears extraordinary that the Thebans, after the defeat and death of Philomelus, should not have pursued their good fortune, without allowing the enemy time to breathe and recover strength. They probably imagined that the fatal exit of that daring chief would deter a successor; and that the

Onomarchus takes the command of the Phocians. Olymp. cvi. 4. A.C. 353.

¹⁷ Lucian de Scribend. Hist. p. 365.

¹⁸ These circumstances, however, rest on the authority of Suidas and Ulpian. It is said, that when the arrow was extracted, the following inscription appeared on it: "After to Philip's right eye." After, it seems, had offered his services to Philip, as an excellent marksman; to which Philip replied, that he would employ him when he waged war with starlings. Philip caused the arrow to be shot back into the place, with a new inscription, "That he would hang up After;" a threat which was executed as soon as he was master of Methoné. Fictions still more incredible were related on this subject by the fabulous writers of the age of Alexander. Philip, it was said, lost his right eye by his unseasonable curiosity in prying into the amours of Olympias and Jupiter Ammon. This ridiculous flattery to Alexander has been so widely diffused, that it was supposed to be the subject represented on the celebrated vase, which is so much better explained by Mr. D'Hancarville. See *Recherches sur les Arts de la Grèce*, vol. ii.

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Phocians would crave peace, if not driven to despair. Such indeed was the resolution of the more respectable part of the Phocians. But the bold, impious, and needy, who composed the most numerous description of that people, were bent on continuing the war. An assembly was convened, when Onomarchus, in a set speech¹⁹, flattered their hopes, and encouraged them to persevere. His opinion prevailed; he was named general; and his conduct soon proved, that he equalled his brother in boldness and ambition, and surpassed him in activity and enterprise. None better knew the power of gold, or had more address in employing it. With the Delphic treasure he coined such a quantity of money as perhaps had never before circulated in Greece. The Phocian army was restored and augmented; their allies were rendered more hearty in their cause; even their enemies were not proof against the temptations which continually assailed their fidelity. By seasonable bribes, Onomarchus distracted the councils of Thebes, and kept their arms inactive. The neighbouring states were persuaded to observe a neutrality; while the Thessalians, a people at all times noted for avarice and fraud²⁰, and of whose country

¹⁹ Περφροντισμενος λογον διελθων. Diodor. p. 432.

²⁰ The Thessalians had the same character in Greece, as the Ligurians in Italy:

— Vane Ligus

Nequicquam patrias tentasti lubricas artes.

VIRG.

Euripides speaks of the slippery deceits of the Thessalians. Demosthenes (Olynth. i. p. 4. ex edit. Wolf.) says, εἴτα τα τῶν θετταλῶν ταῦτα γὰρ ἀπήγα μὲν ἡν δὴ περ φύσει, καὶ αἰεὶ πᾶσι ἀνθρώποις. "Philip was farther distressed by the insurrections of the Thessalians, a people faithless by nature, at all times, to all men."

the

the proverb said, that it had never produced a bad horse or an honest man, openly embraced the cause of Phocis.

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These multiplied advantages were not allowed to languish in the hands of Onomarchus, who hoped to eclipse the unjust motives of his enterprise by the sudden splendour of victory. At the head of a numerous and well-appointed army, he poured down on Locris and Doris, ravaged the country, took Thronium by storm, laid several cities under contribution, pierced into Bœotia, and made himself master of Orchomenus. The Thebans assembled their forces to stem the torrent. Onomarchus first met with a repulse before the walls of Chæronæa, and ventured not to renew the engagement, having weakened his forces by placing garrisons in the important places which he had taken, as well as by sending a detachment of seven thousand men, under his brother Phayllus, into Thessaly²¹.

Success of
his arms.

In that country, the intrigues of Philip had counteracted the gold of Onomarchus. But Lycophron, who was the chief partisan of the latter, and whom Philip had formerly divested of his authority, had again established himself in Pheræ. Pegasæ, Magnesia, and several places of less note, declared for the tyrant, and for Phocis. The Macedonian interest prevailed elsewhere; and the factions were equally balanced, when Philip, with his usual diligence, entered Thessaly, defeated Phayllus, be-

He en-
counters
Philip in
Thessaly,
and ob-
liges him
to retire.

²¹ Diodor. p. 434.

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sieged and took Pegafæ, and drove the enemy with disgrace towards the frontier of Phocis. The fear of losing his newly-acquired interest among the Theffalians, made Onomarchus evacuate Bœotia, and advance against Philip with his whole army. The Macedonians, though less numerous, did not decline the engagement. At the first charge the Phocians gave way, and retreated towards the neighbouring mountains. Philip ordered his men to pursue in their ranks. It was then that the Phocians really began the battle. Onomarchus, foreseeing that the Macedonians would follow in close order, had posted a detachment on the summit of the precipice, who were ready, on a given signal, to roll down fragments of rock, and stones of an enormous size, on the embattled phalanx. This was the only mode of attack for which the Macedonians were not prepared. The line of march, in which the moment before they proceeded with such firmness and confidence, was converted into a dreadful scene of carnage and ruin. Before they recovered from their consternation, the flying Phocians, who had decoyed them into this ambush, returned to the charge. Philip, however, rallied his men; and while Onomarchus hesitated to advance, drew them off in good order, saying, that they did not retreat through fear, but retired like rams, in order to strike with the more impetuous vigour ²².

Onomarchus defeated and slain.

This saying was finally justified, although the Phocians and Lycophron first enjoyed a short tri-

²² Polyxen. Stratag. l. ii. c. xxviii. Diodor. l. xvi. 34, & seqq.
umph.

umph. The tyrant established himself, as he thought, securely, in his native city; the Phocians, reinforced by their Theſſalian allies, again invaded Bœotia, assaulted and took Coronæa, and dreadfully alarmed the Thebans, by the devastations committed in the very centre of their territory. But the time of vengeance arrived. Philip having recruited his army, returned into Theſſaly. The unsteady partisans of Lycophron, had they determined to share his danger, would have proved unable to support his cause. A considerable portion of the Theſſalians received the king of Macedon as their deliverer. Onomarchus was thus obliged to withdraw his forces from Bœotia. At the head of twenty thousand foot and five hundred horse, he marched to the defence of Lycophron, and was met by the enemy, still more numerous, on the level coast of Magnesia. To remind his soldiers that they fought in the cause of Delphi and of Heaven, Philip crowned their heads with the laurel consecrated to Apollo, and adorned his ensigns and standards with the emblems and attributes of that divinity²³. Their onset was impetuous and fierce, and their valour, animated by enthusiasm, rendered them irresistible, though the enemy, conscious of guilt, fought with the fury of despair. Three thousand Theſſalian cavalry, who had signally contributed to the victory of Philip, rendered the pursuit bloody and destructive; while the Phocians, having thrown away their armour, fled towards the sea, allured

²³ Justin. l. viii. 2.

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by the fight of the Athenian fleet under Chares; which was returning from the Chersonesus. That commander seems not to have made any attempt to protect them. Above six thousand perished in the battle, or in the pursuit. The body of Onomarchus was found among the slain; Philip ordered it to be hung on a gibbet, as a mark of peculiar infamy; the rest were thrown into the sea, as unworthy, by their impious sacrilege, of the rites of funeral. Three thousand were taken alive; but it is not absolutely certain whether they were drowned, or reduced into captivity; though the latter opinion is the more probable²⁴.

Philip's
designs
against
Olynthus
and By-
zantium.

It might be expected that such a decisive blow should have proved fatal to the Phocians. But Philip, who had conquered them in Thessaly, durst not pursue his advantages by invading Phocis;

²⁴ The leaving such a circumstance at all doubtful, is very dishonourable to the accuracy of the compiler Diodorus. His words are, τέλος δὲ, τῶν Φωκίων καὶ μισθοφόρων ἀναιρεθῆσαν μὲν ὑπὲρ τῆς ἑξα-
κισχίλης, ἐν οἷς ἦν καὶ αὐτοὶ ὁ στρατηγός. ἤλωσαν δὲ ἅκ' ἐλατῆς τῶν
τρισχίλων. ὁ δὲ Φίλιππος τοὺς μὲν Οὐνομαρχοὺς ἐρεμέσεν, τὰς δὲ ἄλλας ὡς
ἰερουργὰς καταποντίσει. Literally, "At length above six thousand
of the Phocians and mercenaries were, on the one hand, taken
up dead, among whom was the general. Not less than three
thousand were, on the other hand, taken prisoners. Philip hung
up Onomarchus, and threw the rest into the sea, as guilty of sac-
rilege." The learned reader will perceive, that I have given the
full force of the word ἀναιρεθῆσαν: and from the precise and distinc-
tive force of the particles μὲν and δὲ, which separate the two first
clauses of the text, I am of opinion that the τὰς ἄλλας can apply
only to the rest of those who were taken up dead. There is
nothing determinate to be learned from the word καταποντίσει,
which signifies barely to plunge into the sea.

well

well knowing, that an attempt to pass the straits of Thermopylæ would alarm not only his enemies but his allies. It was his interest to perpetuate dissensions in Greece. For that reason he fomented the discord that reigned among the states of Peloponnesus; and though he had punished the obnoxious Phocians, he was unwilling to terminate a war which diverted the public attention from watching too studiously his own ambitious designs. His victory over an odious enemy extended his just renown. He secured the dominion of Thessaly, by planting garrisons in Pheræ, Pegasæ, and Magnesia. His army was ready to march towards Greece on the first favourable opportunity; but till that should arrive, he rejoiced to see both divisions of that country involved in war, which allowed him to accomplish, unmolested, the subordinate purposes of his reign. He had long deceived the Olynthians by good offices and promises, but now began to throw off the mask, and to show that he meant to be their master. He actually applied to Kersebleptes, whom he detached from the interest of Athens; and having raised him on the ruins of the neighbouring chieftains of Thrace, thereby obtained his confidence, and waited an occasion to destroy him with security²⁵. The dominions of that prince opened the way to Byzantium, the possession of which must have early tempted the ambition of Philip, who knew so well to estimate the importance of its situation both in com-

²⁵ Justin. l. viii. 3. Demost. Olynth. 2 & 3.

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His mea-
sures
counter-
acted by
the Athe-
nians.

The Pho-
cian, or
sacred war,
continued
by Phayl-
lus.

merce and in war. He began to discover his designs against Byzantium by attacking the fortrefs of Heræum, a place so called from the neighbouring temple of Juno, which formed its principal ornament. The town of Heræum was small, and in itself unimportant; its harbour was dangerous and deceitful; but being situate contiguous to Byzantium, it served as an outwork and defence to that rich and populous city²⁶.

The Athenians had sufficient penetration to discern the drift of those enterprises. They formed an alliance with the republic of Olynthus; they warned Kerfobleptes of his danger; they voted a numerous fleet to sail to the defence of Heræum, or rather of Byzantium, with which, though rendered independent of Athens by the social war, they still carried on a lucrative commerce. But these spirited exertions were not of long continuance. Philip's wound at Methoné, together with the continual labour and fatigue to which he had afterwards submitted, threw him into a dangerous malady. The report of his sickness was, before it reached Athens, magnified into his death. The Athenians rejoiced in so seasonable a deliverance, and laying aside their naval preparations, bent their principal attention to the sacred war²⁷.

That unhappy contest was renewed by Phayllus, the last surviving brother of Philomelus and Onomarchus. As his cause became more desperate, Phayllus availed himself to the utmost of the only

²⁶ Justin. l. viii. 3. Demosth. Olynth. 2 & 3 ²⁷ Idem, ubi supra.

resource which was left him. Having converted into ready money the most precious dedications of Delphi, he doubled the pay of his mercenaries. This extraordinary encouragement brought new adventurers to his standard, and soon rendered his army equal to that of either of his predecessors. The fugitive Thessalians, assembled in a body by Lycophron, entered into his pay. By means of the Delphic treasure, he acquired, likewise, the public assistance of a thousand Lacedæmonians, two thousand Achæans, five thousand Athenian foot, with four hundred cavalry. These powerful reinforcements enabled the Phocians to take the field with a good prospect of success, and rendered those who had so lately been the objects of pity, again formidable to their enemies²³.

Philip, meanwhile, had recovered from his indisposition. The votes and preparations of the Athenians had taught him that his designs could no longer be concealed. He was acquainted with the alliance formed between that republic and Olynthus. His emissaries gave him intelligence of the actual commotions in Greece, where the countenance and assistance of so many powerful states abetted the sacrilege of the Phocians. The occasion required that he should appear in favour of his allies, and in defence of the pious cause which he had formerly maintained with so much glory. His trophies gained over Onomarchus were still fresh and blooming; and not only the Thebans,

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Olymp.
cviii. 1.
A. C. 352.

Philip, in
order to
oppose
him,
marches
towards
Thermo-
pylæ.

²³ Diodor. p. 436.

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Dorians, and Locrians, who were principals in the war, but the sincere votaries of Apollo in every quarter of Greece, secretly expected him as their deliverer: while his enemies admired his piety and trembled at his valour; and as they had been lately amused with the news of his sickness and death, they would now view with religious terror his unexpected appearance at Thermopylæ, to assert the violated rights of the Delphian temple. Such were the hopes and motives on which Philip, at the head of a numerous army, directed his march²⁹ towards those celebrated straits, which we have formerly described, and so often mentioned.

This means
fine alarms
the Athen-
ians;

But the event shewed, that on this occasion he had made a false estimate of the superstition or timidity of the Greeks, and particularly had built too much on the patience and indolence of the Athenians. That people penetrated his designs, and determined to oppose them. Under the veil of religious zeal, they doubted not that he concealed the desire to invade and conquer their country; and, on the first intelligence of his expedition, their foresight and patriotism represented the Macedonians, Thessalians, and Thebans, pouring down like a destructive inundation, on Attica and Peloponnesus. With an alacrity and ardour, of which there was no recent example in their councils, they flew to arms, launched their fleet, sailed to Thermopylæ, and took possession of the straits³⁰.

who sail to
Thermopylæ, and
guard the
straits.

²⁹ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 437.

³⁰ Demosthen. de Falsa Legat. sect. 29.

Never did Philip meet with a more cruel disappointment, than in being thus anticipated by a people whom he had so often deceived. He retired with deep regret, leaving the Phocian war to be carried on by the Thebans and their allies. Meanwhile, the Athenians placed a guard at Thermopylæ; and, elated by the first instance of their success against the Macedonian, called an assembly to deliberate on measures proper to restrain his ambition.

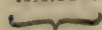
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Philip retires in disappointment.

This assembly is rendered memorable by the first appearance of Demosthenes against Philip, whose measures from this moment he ceased not to watch, and to counteract. Two years before, this illustrious orator, whose works have been more praised than read, and more read than understood, began, in the twenty-eighth year of his age, to appear on the theatre of public life. The Athenians were then involved in the sacred war; their northern possessions were continually insulted, plundered, or conquered by Philip; yet in this situation of affairs, the mercenary partisans of that prince, in order to divert the public attention from his too aspiring designs, affected to extend their views to Asia, and to be alarmed by the motions of Artaxerxes Ochus, who was preparing to reduce the rebels of Cyprus, Egypt, and Phœnicia. In every assembly of the people, the creatures of Philip dwelt, with exaggerated terror, on the naval and military preparations of the great king, which they represented as certainly destined to revenge the recent injuries committed by the Athenian troops, under Chares, on the coast of Asia. The trophies

Demosthenes's first appearance against Philip.

of

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of Miltiades, Themistocles, and Cimon, were adorned with all the pomp of eloquence ; and the Athenians were exhorted to imitate those memorable exploits of their ancestors in the Persian war, which shed a lustre on all the succeeding periods of their history.

Sentiments
of the
wisest
Athenians
respecting
this prince.

In this popular enthusiasm joined Isocrates the orator, together with the statesman and general Phocion, two men whose talents and virtues would have done honour to the most illustrious age of the republic. The unblemished integrity of Isocrates, the disinterested poverty of Phocion, afford sufficient proof that neither of these great men were corrupted by Macedonian gold. But they both perceived that the indolence and unsteadiness of Athens were incapable to contend with the unceasing activity of Philip, and both exhorted their countrymen to gain and cultivate the friendship of a prince, against whom they could not make war with any reasonable prospect of success.

Those of
Isocrates
in particular.

Isocrates, from the most accurate and extensive survey of the political history of Greece, discovered that a foreign war alone could heal the domestic dissensions which reigned in every quarter of that divided country ; and from a thorough knowledge of the inherent defects in the government of Thebes, Athens, and Sparta, he regarded Macedon as the state, and Philip as the general, best entitled, and best qualified, to assume the command of a military expedition into Asia, to revenge ancient wrongs, and to deliver the Grecian colonies from the actual oppression of Barbarians.

On

On this important subject he addressed a discourse to Philip; he repeatedly insisted on the same topic with the Athenians; and it is obscurely related, that on one occasion he reconciled those hostile powers³¹, and engaged them to concur in this extensive yet rational scheme of conquest.

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The sentiments and views of Demosthenes were equally different from those of Isocrates and Phocion on the one hand, and from those of the infamous hirelings of Philip on the other. None knew better than he did the corruption and degeneracy of his countrymen; but he hoped to rouse them from their lethargy; a design, arduous as it may seem, sometimes effected by his eloquence, the most powerful, glowing, and sublime, ever employed by man; and which, of all men, he had been at most pains to acquire and cultivate³². His imagination was filled with the ancient glory of the republic; in the ardour of patriotism he forgot the moderation of philosophy; and while he sternly maintained the prerogatives and pretensions of his country, he would rather have seen Athens defeated at the head of her allies, than victorious under the standard of the Macedonians, or any standard but her own. With such sentiments and character, he was naturally a favourite of the people, and a warm partisan of popular government; while Phocion, like most men of sense and worth in that age, preferred a moderate aristo-

The peculiar views
of Demosthenes

³¹ See the life of Isocrates, prefixed to my translation of his works.

³² Dionys. Halicarn. & Plut. de Demost.

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crazy; and Isocrates was inclined to regard a well-regulated monarchy as the best of all governments³³.

appear in
public ora-
tions.

In his first speeches before the assembly, Demosthenes announced himself as the minister of the people at large, whom he exhorted to awaken from their indolence, and at length to assume the direction of their own affairs. They had been too long governed by the incapacity of a few ambitious men, to the great detriment and disgrace of the community. First an orator at the head of all, under him a general, abetted by a faction of three or four hundred, availed themselves of the sloth and negligence of a people careless of every thing but pleasure, to domineer in the public councils, and to become masters of the state. From considerations of their present corruption and weakness, as well as of the designs and commotions of neighbouring powers, he advised them to forsake all distant and romantic schemes of ambition; and, instead of carrying their arms into remote countries, to prepare for repelling the attacks that might be made against their own dominions. He insisted earnestly on a better regulation of their finances, on the retrenching of many superfluous branches of expence, and especially on a more equitable repartition of public burdens, in proportion to the fortunes of individuals; which, though the income of the state had dwindled to four hundred talents, were actually more considerable than at any former period. While the rich cheerfully paid

³³ See his Nicocles, Evagoras, &c.

their

their contributions, the poor must be willing to forego the burdensome gratuities which they derived from the treasury; and all must be ready to take the field in person, that the publick service might be no longer betrayed, or disgraced, by strangers and mercenaries³⁴.

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Subsequent events justified the opinions, and enforced the counsels of Demosthenes. The Athenians were delivered from their ill-grounded fears of Artaxerxes Ochus, when they beheld the preparations of that monarch directed against his rebellious subjects. The encroachments of Philip became continually more daring and more formidable; and his recent attempts to seize the straits of Thermopylæ shewed the necessity of opposing him with re-united vigilance and vigour.

His first
Philippic.

In this juncture, so favourable to awakening the activity of Athens, Demosthenes mounted the rostrum³⁵ before any other orator, apologising for this forwardness in a man not yet thirty years of age, by observing, "That already the usual speakers had given their opinions on the subject of Philip; and that, had *their* advices been useful and practicable, they must have precluded the necessity of any farther deliberation. First of all, Athenians! you ought not to despair; no! not although your affairs seem indeed involved in equal confusion and danger. For the same circumstance which is

³⁴ Vid. Oration. de Clāssibus, & de Ordinand. Republic.

³⁵ I have used that word, because adopted in our language to express the *ἑστία*, pulpit or gallery appropriated to the speakers in the Athenian assembly.

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the cause of your past misfortunes, ought to furnish the source of your present hope. What is that? Your own negligence and sloth, not the power of your enemies, have disordered the state. Had your distress arisen, notwithstanding your utmost care to prevent it, there would then be little hope of relief. But since it is occasioned by your own misconduct, you need only repair your errors, in order to retrieve your affairs. Considering the weakness of Athens, thus despoiled of her dominions, and the strength of Philip, which has increased immoderately at our expence, should you think him a formidable enemy, you doubtless think aright. Yet reflect, Athenians! that there was a time when we possessed Pydna, Potidæa, Methoné, and all the surrounding territory; that the nations in that neighbourhood, now subject to Philip, were then independent, and preferred the alliance of Athens to that of Macedon. In the infancy of his fortune, had Philip reasoned timidly, as we do now, ‘How shall I, destitute of allies, attack the Athenians, whose garrisons command my frontier?’ he would not have engaged in those enterprises which have been crowned with such signal success, nor raised his kingdom to such an unexampled pitch of grandeur. No, Athenians! he knew well, that towns and fortresses are but prizes of skill and valour³⁶

³⁶ ΑΛΛ’ οἶδ’, ὡ ἀνδρες Ἀθηναῖοι, τὸτο καλῶς ἐκεῖνος, ὅτι ταῦτα μὲν ἐπὶ ἅπαντα τὰ χροῖα ἀθλὰ τε πολέμῳ κείμενα ἐν μέσῳ. In ancient times the figure had more force, as well as dignity; because at the Olympic, and other sacred games, the spectators were used to behold the prizes proposed to the victors, κείμενα ἐν μέσῳ, exposed in the middle of the field, to excite their emulation and ardour. See vol. i. c. v.

proposed to the combatants, and belong of right to the conqueror; that the dominions of the absent are seized by those who take the field, and the possessions of the negligent and slothful by the vigilant and intrepid. Guided by these principles, he has subdued, and governs all; holding some communities by right of conquest, and others under the title of allies; for allies no prince nor state can want, who are not wanting to themselves. But should you, Athenians! imitate the example of Philip, and at length, rousing from your lethargy, apply seriously to your interest, you would speedily recover those advantages which your negligence only has lost. Favourable occasions will yet occur; for you must not imagine that Philip, like a god, enjoys his prosperity for ever fixed and immutable³⁷. No, Athenians! there are who hate him, who fear him, who envy him, even among those seemingly the most devoted to his cause. These are universal passions, from which the allies of Macedon are not, surely, exempted. They have hitherto concealed them, finding no resource in you; but it depends on your councils to call them into action. When, therefore, O my countrymen! when will you exert your vigour? when roused by some event—when urged by some necessity—What can be more urgent than the present juncture? To freemen, the most necessary of all mo-

³⁷ The original is inimitable: *μη γὰρ ὡς θεῶν νομιζέτ' ἐκείνῳ τὰ παρόντα πεπηγέναι πρᾶγματα ἀθανάτα*. Join the *τα* and the *πρᾶγματα*, the article and the substantive, and the charm will be dissolved.

CHAP. XXXIV. { tives is the shame of misconduct. Or say, will it still be your sole business to saunter in the public place, enquiring after news? What can be more new, than that a Macedonian should conquer Athens, and enslave Greece? Is Philip dead? No, but in great danger. How are you concerned in these rumours? What matters it to you whether he is sick or dead, since, if you thus manage your affairs, your folly will soon raise up another Philip³⁸?"

Measures
proposed
by Demos-
thenes for
resisting
Philip.

After this animated remonstrance, Demosthenes proposes a plan of operations calculated chiefly for defence. The Athenians, he observes, were not yet prepared to meet Philip in the field. They must begin by protecting Olynthus, and the Chersonesus, from his incursions. For this purpose, it was necessary to raise a body of two thousand men light-armed, and an adequate proportion of cavalry, which were to be transported under a proper convoy (as Philip had his fleet) with all expedition to the isles of Lemnos, Thasos, and Sciathos, contiguous to the coast of Macedon. Conveniently posted in those islands, where they would enjoy necessities in abundance, the Athenian troops might avail themselves of every favourable incident, to appear at the first summons of their allies, and either to repel the inroads of the Macedonians, or

³⁸ The sense indeed of that period, but neither its force nor its harmony, can be translated. Τεθνηκε Φίλιππος; ἢ μα δια! ἀλλ' εὐθὺς τι δὲ ὄντι διαφέρει; καὶ γὰρ ἀν' ἑτοῦς τι παύη, ταχέως ὑμεῖς ἐπὶ τοῦ Φιλίππου πικνεῖσθε, ἀν' ἑτοῦς πρὸς ἑμὲ πρὸς ἑμὲ τοὺς πραγμάτων τοῦ νῦν· οὐ γὰρ ἑτοῦς παρὰ τὴν ἑαυτοῦ φωνὴν τισάντων ἐπηξήσεται, ὅσον παρὰ τὴν ἑαυτοῦ ἀρετήν.

to harass the extended, and, in many parts, defenceless territory of that people. Meanwhile, preparations would be made at home for carrying on the war in due time, with more numerous forces, and with greater vigour. Such moderate proposals prove that Demosthenes well understood the genius of his countrymen. He required that only the fourth part of the troops should consist of Athenian citizens, and the immediate supplies were only to amount to ninety talents. He knew that higher demands would alarm their indolence and love of pleasure; and so fatally were they sunk in the dissipated amusements of the city, that it is probable the small armament proposed did not actually set fail; it is certain that no future preparations were made adequate to the public service.

The profound policy of Philip fostered the supine negligence of his enemies. For more than two years after his retreat from Thermopylæ, that crafty prince much confined himself to his dominions, and chiefly to his capital, anxious to dissipate the clamour occasioned by his too great precipitation to seize the gates of Greece. In that interval he indeed made an expedition to chastise the rebellious spirit of the Thessalians. But the greatest part of his time was spent at Pella, and addicted to the arts of peace, which he judged with skill, and encouraged with munificence. That favourite city was adorned with temples, theatres, and porticoes. The most ingenious artists of Greece were summoned, by liberal rewards, to the court

Philip affects to lay aside his ambition.

His occupation during a long residence at Pella.
A. C. 350,
& 349.

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of Macedon³⁹; and men of talents and genius⁴⁰, who were too often exposed to envy and persecution in the former country, were received with open arms by a prince, who, amidst the tumult of war, assiduously cultivated the studies of literature and eloquence. In his domestic government, Philip administered justice with impartiality, listened with condescension to the complaints of his meanest subjects, and disdaining the ceremonious and forbidding pomp of tyranny, maintained an intercourse of visits and entertainments with his courtiers and generals⁴¹.

His vices; In a prince so respectably employed, it is difficult to conceive the odious and detestable vices with which Philip is upbraided by Demosthenes⁴²; yet the brief descriptions occasionally sketched by the orator are filled up by an ancient historian, who represents the infamies of the life of Philip in language well fitted to arraign the horrors of Nero or Heliogabalus. Could we believe the acrimony of Theopompus, a writer who flourished in the age of Alexander, by whom he was rewarded and honoured, not perhaps the less willingly because he had exposed or exaggerated the vices of his father, Philip sullied his great actions by the most enormous and detestable crimes. Alike avaricious and prodigal, the wealth which he had amassed by

³⁹ Justin. l. viii. c. 3.

⁴⁰ Among other Greeks who lived at Philip's court were, Leosthenes the orator, Neoptolemus the poet, Aristodemus and Satyrus, celebrated players. Æschin. & Demosthen. *passim*.

⁴¹ Plut. in Apophth. & in Demosthen. & Alexand.

⁴² Vid. Demosthen. ex edit. Wolf. pp. 5, 8, 48, 66, &c.

injustice and rapacity, he dissipated in the most flagitious gratifications, and in company with the meanest and most worthless of mankind. His companions were chosen promiscuously from Macedonians and Greeks, and especially from Thessalians, the most profligate of the Greeks, and were admitted to his familiarity and friendship in proportion to their proficiency in the most odious and unnatural abominations⁴³ that ever polluted the worst men in the most corrupt ages of the world. We must, doubtless, make allowances for the gall

⁴³ The epithets given them by Theopompus are, βδελυκοί, *abominabiles*; and λασταυοί; the last word is compounded of λα, *valde*, and ταυρος, *taurus*; and translated *insegnitur mentulatus*, which corresponds to the *enormitas membrorum* of the Augustan historians. The following description of the friends of Philip is too indecent for modern language: "Horum enim quidam jam viri barbam identidem radebant & vellebantur: alii vero barbati citra pudorem vicissim se impudicabant, stupris intercutibus se flagitantes; regi vero duo vel tres circumducebantur qui paterentur muliebria, & eandem operam navarent alios subagitantes. Quamobrem illos jure aliquis non amicos regis, sed amicos esse credidisset, nec milites sed prostibula nuncupasset, ingenio quidem & natura sanguinarios, moribus autem virilia scorta, &c." This passage is quoted from the forty-ninth book of Theopompus. In his twenty sixth book he speaks to the same purpose: "Philippum cum Thessalos intemperantes esse, ac lascivæ petulantisque vitæ prospiceret, eorum conventus ac contubernia instituisse; iisque uti placeret modis omnibus fuisse conatum, cum illis saltasse, commistatum fuisse, cuivis libidini se ac nequitie tradidisse." A mistaken passage of Diodorus has made some learned men doubt the authenticity of these descriptions. Diodorus (l. xvi. sect. 3.) says, that Theopompus γεγραφεὶς ὀκτὼ βιβλία, πρὸς τοῖς πεντήκοντα ἐξ ὧν πέντε διαφέρουσιν; "had written the history of Philip in fifty-eight books, five of which differ in style from the rest." Were we therefore to suppose the five last books spurious (for that is the inference which has been drawn), the observation of Diodorus would not at all affect the passages above cited.

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of a writer, noted to a proverb for severity. Yet there is sufficient collateral evidence, that Philip's strong propensity to low wit, obscenity, and drunkenness, rendered him a prey to buffoons, and parasites, and flatterers, and all the worthless retinue of intemperance and folly. These disgraceful associates of the prince, formed, in time of war, a regiment apart, of about eight hundred men, whose gradual waste was continually recruited by new members, who either were, or soon became, worthy of the old; for, as we shall soon have occasion to relate, the whole band were alike cowardly and profligate.

and po-
licy.

But in whatever manner Philip employed his private hours, he at no time lost sight of those great principles of policy which regulated his public administration. Under pretence of wanting money to supply the expence of his buildings, and other public works, he employed an expedient which is well known in latter times, and which has been carried to such excess as threatens the safety of those governments which it was intended to uphold. The letting loose of the Delphic treasures had diffused near a million sterling over Greece ⁴⁴. The unsettled state of that country

⁴⁴ The sacred war lasted ten years, and cost the Phocians ten thousand talents, near two millions; it had already lasted five years, and may be supposed to have cost near the half of that sum. Diodor. l. xvi. p. 453. He says, that the gold and silver dedications (which were coined into money) *ὑπερβάλλειν τὰ μυρία ταλента*, "exceeded ten thousand talents;" a prodigious sum (considering the relative value of money in those days), of which the sudden diffusion could not fail to produce most important consequences.

rendered

rendered those who had acquired wealth very uncertain of enjoying it. With the rich and avaricious, Philip employed proper agents to take up⁴⁵ money at high interest, which procured him two advantages of a very important kind, the attaching to his government and person a numerous and powerful band of creditors; and the enabling him to pay, under the title of debts, and therefore without suspicion, the various pensions and gratuities by which he maintained his influence among the orators and leading men in the several republics.

⁴⁵ Justin. viii. 3.

C H A P. XXXV.

Negligence and Licentiousness of the Athenians.—Philip's Intrigues in Eubœa.—Phocion defeats the Macedonians and Eubœans.—Philip invades the Olynthian Territory.—Demosthenes's Orations in favour of the Olynthians.—Expedition of Chares.—Philip takes Olynthus.—Celebrates the Festival of the Muses at Dium.—Commits naval Depredations on Attica.—His Embassy to Athens.—The Athenian Embassy to Philip.—Character of the Ambassadors.—Their Conference with the King.—Differently reported to the Senate and Assembly.—Philip's Conquests in Thrace.—The Phocian War.—Negociations.—Philip's Intrigues.—Decree of the Amphictyons against Phocis.—Executed by Philip.—Macedon acknowledged the principal Member of the Amphictyonic Council.

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Negli-
gence and
licentious-
ness of the
Atheni-
ans.

Olymp.
cvii. 4.

A. C. 349.

THE Athenians, deceived by the inactivity of the king of Macedon, indulged themselves, without reserve, in their favourite amusements. Their confederates, the Phocians, were abandoned; the war with Philip, in which they might well have considered themselves as principals, was neglected. Magistrates and people seemed solely attentive to regulate public festivals and processions, and to ascertain the respective merit of dramatic poets and performers. The fund originally intended for the

exigencies of war, had already been appropriated to the theatre; and a law was now enacted, on the motion of Eubulus, an artful flatterer of the multitude, rendering it a capital crime to propose altering this unexampled and most whimsical destination. It was in vain for Demosthenes to resist the popular torrent. He was opposed and overcome by Eubulus and Demades, the latter of whom, with talents that might have adorned his country, condescended to sell its interests to the public enemy.

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Born in the lowest condition of life, Demades retained the vices of his birth; and always discovered that sordid spirit, and weltered in those brutal excesses, which betray the want of early culture. Yet the acuteness of his apprehension, the strength of his reason and memory, and, above all, the bold and copious flow of his unpremeditated eloquence, in which he was allowed to excel even Demosthenes¹ himself, raised him to a conspicuous rank in the assembly; and it being his business, as the hireling of Philip, to sail along with the stream of popular frenzy, which the patriotism of his rival endeavoured to struggle with, and to stem, he possessed a free and ample scope for exercising his abilities.

Justified
by Demades.

The people of Athens triumphed in the victory of perfidious demagogues over the wisest and best of their fellow-citizens, or rather over the laws and constitution of their country, when Philip began to

Philip's
intrigues
in Eubœa.
Olymp.
cvii. 4.
A. C. 349.

¹ Plutarch. in Demosthen.

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play those batteries which he had patiently raised with such skill and secrecy. The island of Eubœa, which he called the fetters of Greece, was the first object of his attack. Since the expulsion of the Thebans, of which we have formerly taken notice, the Athenians had preserved their interest in the island, where they maintained a small body of troops. The different cities, however, enjoyed the independent government of their own laws; they appointed their own magistrates; they sometimes made war against each other; and separately assumed the prerogatives of free and sovereign states, while they all collectively acknowledged their dependence on Athens. Such political arrangements made room for the intrigues of Philip. He fomented their civil discord; gained partisans in each city; and, at length, under colour of protecting his allies, landed several Macedonian battalions in the island².

Danger to which the Athenian interest in that island was exposed;

Matters were soon disposed to his wish. The Macedonians were allowed to occupy the most advantageous posts. The Athenian party exclaimed and threatened; but Plutarch, the leader of that party, was gained to the interests of Philip, and demanded auxiliaries from Athens, only to betray them into the hands of their enemies. Demosthenes, who alone penetrated this dark scheme of villany, entreated and conjured his countrymen to put no confidence in Plutarch. But he was single in his opinion. The confidants of Philip were

² *Æschin. in Ctesiphont. & Demosth. de falsa Legation. & de Pace.*

true to their master, and therefore urged the expedition. The friends of their country were eager to save the isle of Eubœa, and the capricious multitude, ever in extremes, rushed with as much impetuosity to an enterprize intended for their ruin, as they had long shewn backwardness to engage in every other³. The promptitude and vigour of their preparations much exceeded the expectation, and even alarmed the fears, of the Macedonian faction. But the latter had gone too far to retreat; nor could they foresee the consequences that happened, so contrary to their hopes. The Athenians, in fact, obtained a decisive victory, not by the strength of their arms, which was inferior to the enemy's, but by the wise choice of a general.

The consummate prudence of Phocion, who, on his arrival in Eubœa, found things in a worse state than had been represented, risked no chance of defeat, and lost no opportunity of advantage⁴. Having chosen a favourable post, which was on all sides surrounded by broken and uneven ground, he despised the clamours of his men and the insults of the enemy. The treacherous Plutarch was quickly defeated in a mock battle, in which he fell back on the Athenian cavalry, who fled in disorder to the camp of Phocion. The Eubœans and Macedonians pursued with a rash and intemperate ardour; and, elated with victory, and confident in their superior numbers, prepared to assail the camp. The general, meanwhile, performed a sacrifice, which he studiously prolonged, either from

from
which
they are
extricated
by Pho-
cion.

³ Demosth. de Pace.

⁴ Plutarch. in Phocion.

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He defeats
the Mace-
donians
and Eu-
bœans.

religion or policy, until he beheld the disorder of the assailants, embarrassed by the unequal ground, and by their own rashness. He then commanded his men to stand to their arms, and falling from his entrenchments with intrepid valour, increased the confusion of the enemy, who were repelled with great slaughter towards the plain which they had at first occupied. The activity of Cleophanes, who had rallied and formed the Athenian cavalry, rendered the victory complete. The remains of the vanquished took refuge in the fortress of Zera-tra, in the northern corner of the island, which, being attacked, made a feeble resistance⁵. The garrison surrendered; but Phocion restored all the Eubœans to liberty, lest the people of Athens, inflamed by their popular leaders, might treat them with that cruelty, which, on a similar occasion, they had inflicted on the rebellious citizens of Mitylené⁶. Having spent a few weeks in settling the affairs of the island, he returned in triumph to Athens, his ships drawn up in line of battle, their stems crowned with garlands, and the rowers keeping time to the sound of martial music. His fellow-citizens received him with acclamations of joy; but their imprudence did not allow them to reap the fruits of his success. Molossus, an obscure stranger, was appointed, by cabal, to command the troops left in the island; and Philip, having renewed his intrigues, carried them on with the same dexterity, and met with better success⁷.

⁵ Plut. in Phocion. ⁶ See above, vol. ii. c. xvi. pp. 243, & seqq.

⁷ Plut. in Phocion.

It is worthy of attention, that Demosthenes followed the standard of Phocion to Eubœa, though he had strongly disapproved the expedition. Both he and his rival Æschines, of whom we shall soon have occasion to speak more fully, served in the cavalry. Demosthenes was reproached with being the first who deserted his rank, and among the last who returned to the charge. Æschines behaved with distinguished gallantry, and had the honour of being appointed by Phocion to carry home the first intelligence of the victory⁸.

Philip's disappointment in Eubœa only stimulated his activity. His toils were spread so widely all around him, that when one part failed he could catch his prey in another. The Olynthians, against whom he seemed to have long forgotten his resentment, were astonished to observe that several of their citizens grew rich and great in a manner equally sudden and unaccountable; and that they enlarged their possessions, built stately palaces, and displayed a degree of magnificence and grandeur hitherto unknown in their frugal republic. The unexpected invasion of Philip revealed the mystery. A considerable party had grown wealthy by betraying the secrets, exposing the weakness, and fostering the ill-timed security of their country⁹. Their influence at home had recommended them to Philip, and the wages of their iniquity had increased that influence. It would not probably have been difficult to prove their treason, but it seemed dangerous to punish it; and the Olynthians

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Opposite
behaviour
of Demos-
thenes and
Æschines
in the bat-
tle.

Philip in-
vades the
territory of
Olynthus.
Olymp.
cvii. 4.
A. C. 349.

⁸ Æschin. de falsa Legatione, & Demost. in Midiam,

⁹ Demosthen. Olynth. passim.

were

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The Olynthians implore the aid of Athens.

were more immediately concerned to repel the open ravagers of their territory. In this emergency they trusted not to their domestic forces of ten thousand foot and one thousand horse¹⁰, but sent an embassy to Athens, inveighing in the strongest terms against Philip, who had first courted, then deceived, and at last invaded and attacked them; and craving assistance from the Athenians, in consequence of the alliance formerly concluded between the two republics, to defeat the designs of a tyrant equally daring and perfidious.

State of parties in Athens.

Had the people of Athens heartily undertaken the cause of Olynthus, Philip would have been exposed a second time to the danger which he had eluded with so much address in the beginning of his reign. Thebes was employed and exhausted in the Phocian war; the grandeur of Sparta had decayed as much as her principles had degenerated; the inferior states extended not their views of policy beyond their respective districts. But the Athenians, recently successful in Eubœa, and reinforced by the strength and resentment of such a republic as Olynthus, might have still rendered themselves formidable to the public enemy, especially as at this juncture the rebellious humours of the Thessalians broke out afresh, and led them capriciously to oppose, with as much eagerness as they had often helped to promote, the interest of Macedon. But to compensate these unpromising circumstances, Philip possessed strenuous abettors of his power within the walls of Athens and Olynthus; and his garrisons actually commanded the principal posts

¹⁰ Demosth. de falsa Legatione.

in Theffaly. Above all, the indolence and vices of his enemies were moſt favourable to his cauſe. The late ſucceſs in Eubœa, which ſhould have animated a brave and generous people to new exertions and dangers, only replunged the Athenians into a ſlothful ſecurity. While they enjoyed their theatrical entertainments, their ſhows and feſtivals, and all the eaſe and luxury of a city life, they were little inclined to engage in any enterpriſe that might diſturb the tranquil courſe of their pleaſures. In this diſpoſition they were encouraged by their perfidious orators, who ſtrongly exhorted them to beware of involving themſelves in the danger of Olynthus, or of provoking the reſentment of a prince whoſe power they were unable to reſiſt. The orator Demades particularly diſtinguiſhed his zeal in the Macedonian intereſt; adviſing an abſolute and total rejection of the demands of the Olynthian ambaffadors.

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Demofthenes at length aroſe, and as the deſign of calling the aſſembly had been already explained, entered immediately on the queſtion under deliberation. “ On ¹¹ many occaſions, Athenians! have the gods declared their favour to this ſtate, but never more manifeſtly than in the preſent juncture.

First ora-
tion of
Demofthe-
nes in fa-
vour of
the Olyn-
thians.

¹¹ I mean not a tranſlation of Demofthenes. The inserting his ſpeeches entire would deſtroy the humble uniformity of this hiſtorical work, with the deſign of which it would be inconſiſtent to tranſcribe what the orator found it neceſſary to ſay, repeat, and enforce ſo often. Beſides, Demofthenes is one of the few Greek writers that has been tranſlated, as the late Mr. Harris ſays in his Philological Enquiries, by competent perſons: Drs. Leland and Francis, in Engliſh; Mr. Tourreil and the Abbé Auger, in French; and the Abbé Ceſarotti, in Italian.

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G

That

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That enemies should be raised to Philip, on the confines of his territory, enemies not contemptible in power, and, which is more important, so determined on the war, that they regard every accommodation with Macedon, first as insidious, next as the destruction of their country, can be ascribed to nothing less than the bountiful interposition of heaven. With every thing else on our side, let us not be wanting to ourselves; let us not be reproached with the unspeakable infamy of throwing away, not only those cities and territories which we inherited from our ancestors, but those occasions and alliances offered us by fortune and the gods. To insist on the power and greatness of Philip belongs not to the present subject. He has become great through your supine neglect, and the perfidy of traitors whom it becomes you to punish. Such topics are not honourable for you: I wave them as superfluous, having matter more material to urge. To call the king of Macedon perjured and perfidious, without proving my assertions, would be the language of insult and reproach. But his own actions, and not my resentment, shall name him; and of these I think it necessary to speak for two reasons; first, that he may appear, what he really is, a wicked man; and, secondly, that the weak minds who are intimidated by his power and resources, may perceive that the artifices to which he owes them are now all exhausted, and that his ruin is at hand. As to myself, Athenians! I should not only fear but admire Philip, had he attained his present height of grandeur

deur by honourable and equitable means. But after the most serious examination I find, that at first he seduced our simplicity by the flattering promise of Amphipolis; that he next surprised the friendship of Olynthus by the deceitful gift of Potidæa; that, lastly, he enslaved the Thessalians, under the specious pretence of delivering them from tyrants. In one word, with what community hath he treated which hath not experienced his fraud? Which of his confederates hath he not shamelessly betrayed? Can it be expected, then, that those who promoted his elevation, because they thought him *their* friend, will continue to support it, when they find him a friend to his own interest alone? Impossible! When confederacies are formed on the principles of common advantage and affection, each member shares the toils with alacrity; all persevere: such confederacies endure. But when worthlessness and lawless ambition have raised a single man, the slightest accident overthrows the unstable edifice of his grandeur. It is not, no! Athenians! it is not possible to found a lasting power on treachery, fraud, and perjury. These may succeed for a while: but time reveals their weakness. For, as in a house, a ship, and in structures of every kind, the foundation and lower parts should be firm and solid, so the grounds and principles of action should be just and true. But such qualities belong not to the actions of Philip¹².

“ I am

¹² The important, though trite proverb, that in public, as well as in private transactions, “ honesty is the best policy,” was

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“ I am of opinion, then, that fearless of consequences, you ought to assist Olynthus with the utmost celerity and vigour, and to dispatch an embassy to the Theſſalians, to inflame their hostility. But take care, Athenians ! that your ardour evaporate not in resolutions and decrees. Be ready to pay your contributions; prepare to take the field; shew yourselves in earnest, and you will soon discover not only the hollow faith of the allies of Philip, but the internal and concealed infirmity of Macedon itself. That kingdom has emerged from obscurity amidst the contests of neighbouring states, during which the smallest weight, put into either scale, is sufficient to incline the balance. But, in itself, Macedon is inconsiderable and weak, and its real weakness is increased by the splendid but ruinous expeditions of Philip. For the king and his subjects are actuated by very different sentiments. Domineered

never expressed, perhaps with such dignity, as in the following words of Demosthenes: *ὅταν μιν γὰρ ὑπ' εὐνοίας τὰ πρᾶγματα συζη-
κῆ πασι τὰντα συμφέρον τοῖς μετέχουσι τῷ πολέμῳ, καὶ συμπονεῖν, καὶ φέρειν
τὰς συμφοράς, καὶ μὴ εὐθελῶσι οἱ ἀνθρώποι· ὅταν δὲ ἐκ πλεονεξίας τις,
ὡς περ ἑγὼς, ἰσχυρὴν ἢ πρῶτην προφασιν, καὶ μικρὸν πταίσμα ἅπαντα ἀνε-
χαιτίσι, καὶ διαλύσει· οὐ γὰρ ἐστὶ, ὡ ἀνδρες Ἀθηναῖοι, ἀδικεῖν καὶ ἐπιου-
κῆντα καὶ ψευδομένον, δύναμιν βίβαναι κτεσασθαι· ἀλλὰ τὰ τοιαῦτα εἰς
μὲν ἅπασι, καὶ βραχὺν χρόνον, ἀντεχῆν· καὶ σφοδρὰ γὰρ κινήσει ἐπὶ ταῖς ἐλ-
πίσι, αἱ τεχναί· τῷ χρόνῳ δὲ φανταί, καὶ περὶ αὐτὰ καταρρεῖ. ὡς περ γὰρ
οἰκίας, οἰμαί, καὶ πλοῦς, καὶ τῶν ἄλλων τῶν τοιούτων τὰ κατωτέρω ἰσχυροτάτα
εἶναι δεῖ, ἔτω καὶ τῶν πράξεων τὰς ἀρχὰς καὶ τὰς υποθέσεις ἀληθεῖς καὶ δι-
καιὰς εἶναι προσήκει· τὸτο δὲ οὐκ ἐν ἡμῖν ἐν τοῖς πεπραγμένοις Φιλίππῳ·
Demosthen. Olynth. i. or Olynth. ii. p. 7th, in the common but
incorrect edition of Wolfius.*

by

by ambition, he disregards ease and safety; but his subjects, who individually have little share in the glory of his conquests, are indignant, that, for the sake of one man, they should be harassed by continual warfare, and withdrawn from those occupations and pursuits, which afford the comforts and happiness of private life. On the great body of his people, Philip, therefore, can have no reliance; nor, whatever may be said of their valour and discipline, can he depend more on his mercenaries. For I am informed, by a man of undoubted veracity, who has just arrived from Macedon, that none of Philip's guards, even those whom he treats with the affectionate, but deceitful names of companions, and fellow-soldiers, can merit his esteem, without incurring his hatred and persecution. Such is the intolerable jealousy, such the malignant envy, which crowns the other odious vices of this monster, who, defying every sentiment of virtue and decency, drives from his presence all who shudder, all who are disgusted, at the most unnatural enormities; and whose court is continually crowded by buffoons, parasites, obscene poets and drunkards; wretches who, when drunk, will dance, but such dances¹³ as modesty dare not name. Slight and trivial as these matters may to some appear, they exhibit the worthlessness of Philip, and announce the infelicity

¹³ The *κορδαλισμος*. Demosth. p. 8. Vid. Schol. ad Aristoph. in Nubib. From the description above given of Athenian manners, it appears that Demosthenes's delicacy was merely complimentary.

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which awaits him. The dangerous defects of his character are hid in the blaze of prosperity¹⁴; but when misfortune happens, his native deformity will appear. For it is easy to prove that, as in the bodily frame, men, during the season of health, are insensible of what is weak and disordered in their constitutions, which imperfections are immediately felt on the first approach of sickness; so the glory of foreign conquest conceals the vices and defects of republics and monarchies; but let calamity happen, let the war be carried to their frontiers, and those hitherto latent evils immediately become manifest.

“ If there is a man among you, Athenians! who thinks that Philip is a formidable enemy, because he is fortunate, I agree with that man. Fortune¹⁵ has a mighty influence, or rather Fortune alone domineers in human affairs. Yet could you be persuaded to do but the smallest part of your duty, I would greatly prefer your fortune to Philip’s; for *you*, surely, have better reason to trust in the assistance of Heaven. But we remain, I think, inactive, hesitating, delaying, and deliberating, while our enemy takes the field, braving seasons and dangers, and neglecting no opportunity of advantage. And if the indolent and careless are abandoned by their best friends, can we expect that the gods, however favourable, should assist us, if we will not help ourselves?”

¹⁴ *Secundæ res mirè sunt vitiis obtentui.* Sallust.

¹⁵ From what is said below, it appears that, by Fortune, Demosthenes here means the dispensations of Providence; and by good Fortune, the Favour of Heaven.

The people of Athens, animated to their duty, on the one hand, by Demosthenes, and seduced, on the other, by the hirelings of Philip¹⁶ and their own deceitful passions, imprudently steered a middle course, which, in public affairs, is often the most dangerous. Convinced that the preservation of Olynthus was the best safeguard of Attica, yet unwilling to tear themselves from their beloved pleasures, they determined to send Chares, with a fleet and two thousand mercenaries, to the assistance of their allies. This commander, who was the idol of the multitude, but the disgrace of his country and of his profession¹⁷, shewed no solicitude to protect the dependencies of Olynthus, which successively submitted to the Macedonian arms. To gratify the rapacity of his troops, he made a descent on the fertile coast of Pallené, where, falling in with eight hundred men commanded by Audæus, called the friends of Philip, he obtained over those contemptible cowards an easy and ludicrous victory, which served only to amuse the comic poets of the times. Having gained this advantage, Chares became unwilling to try his fortune in any severer conflict; and disdaining, as he affected, to follow the motions of Philip, returned home, and celebrated his triumph over the vain, boastful, and voluptuous Audæus¹⁸;

¹⁶ Philochorus in Dionys. Epist. ad Ammonium.

¹⁷ Timotheus said of him, "that he was fitter to carry the baggage, than to command an army." Plut. in Apophth.

¹⁸ Among his contemporaries, he was nicknamed *αλεκτερον*, the cock. Athenæus, l. xii. p. 534.

not, however, with the spoils of the vanquished, but with the sum of sixty talents, which he had extorted from the Phocians, who were actually in alliance with Athens¹⁹.

Philip be-
sieged
Olynthus.

The thoughtless multitude, who judged of the expedition of Chares by the expensive pomp with which he entertained them at his return, talked extravagantly of invading Macedon, and chastising the insolence of Philip²⁰, when a second embassy arrived from Olynthus. The inhabitants of this place had been shut up within their walls; they had lost Stagyra, Miciberna, Toroné, cities of considerable strength, besides many inferior towns, which, on the first appearance of Philip, were forward to receive his bribes, and to open their gates²¹; and this shameful venality, in places well provided for defence, made the king of Macedon observe to his generals, that he would thenceforth consider no fortress as impregnable, which could admit a mule laden with money²². Dejected by continual losses, the Olynthians turned their thoughts to negotiation, that they might at least amuse the invader till the arrival of the Athenian succours. Philip penetrated their design, and dexterously turned their arts against them; affecting to lend an ear to their proposals, but meanwhile continu-

¹⁹ Athenæus, l. xii. p. 534.

²⁰ Demosthen. Olynth. ii.

²¹ Diodorus, l. xvi. p. 450.

²² Plutarch. ubi supra. Diodorus, p. 451, relates the matter somewhat differently. But he acknowledges that the king of Macedon boasted that he had augmented his dominions more by gold than by arms. Diodorus, p. 450.

ing his approaches, till, having got within forty stadia of their walls, he declared that of two things one was necessary, either *they* must leave Olynthus, or *be* Macedon²³. This explicit declaration from an enemy, who often flattered to destroy, but who might always be believed when he threatened, convinced the Olynthians of what they had long suspected, that their utter ruin was at hand. They endeavoured to retard the fatal moment by a vigorous sally, in which their cavalry, commanded by Apollonides, particularly signalised their valour²⁴. But they were repulsed by superior numbers, and obliged to take refuge in the city.

In this posture of affairs, the ambassadors sailed for Athens; and having arrived there, found, to their utter astonishment, the multitude still enjoying the imaginary triumph of Chares. This commander, who chiefly owed his credit to the ascendant of superficial qualities over the undiscerning folly of the people, was a warm and active partisan of democracy, and as such viewed, even by Demosthenes, with too partial eyes. The orator, besides, well knew that the irregular, useless, or destructive operations of the Athenian arms, ought not always to be charged on the misconduct of the general. The troops were always ill paid; sometimes not paid at all; and therefore disobedient and mutinous. Instead of submitting to controul, they often controuled their leaders; their resolutions were prompt and ungovernable; when they could not persuade, they threatened; and com-

Second
embassy to
Athens.

²³ Demosthen. Philipp. iii.

²⁴ Id. *ibid.*

pelled

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The demands of the Olynthians again enforced by Demosthenes.

pelled even prudent commanders to measures wild, ruinous, and dishonourable.

Demosthenes, therefore, who again undertook to second the demands of Olynthus, waved all accusation against particular persons. After endeavouring to repress the vain confidence of his countrymen, which had been excited by the supposed advantages of Chares, and the venal breath of corrupt orators, he describes the real danger of their allies, which he persuades them to regard as their own. The crisis was now arrived; and if they neglected the present opportunity of fulfilling their engagements to Olynthus, they must soon be obliged to meet Philip in Attica. He reminds them of the various occasions, which they had already lost, of repelling this rapacious tyrant, this hostile Barbarian, this mixture of perfidy and violence, for whom he cannot find any name sufficiently reproachful. "But some perhaps will say, it is the business of a public speaker to advise, not to upbraid. We wish to assist the Olynthians, and we will assist them; but inform us how our aid may be rendered most effectual. Appoint magistrates, Athenians! for the inspection of your laws; not to enact new laws; they are already too numerous; but to repeal those whose ill effects you daily experience; I mean the laws respecting the theatrical funds (thus openly I declare it), and some about the soldiery. By the first, the soldier's pay is consumed, as theatrical expences, by the useless and inactive; the second screen from justice the coward who declines the service, and damp the ardour of the

the brave who would be ready to take the field. Till these laws be repealed, expect not that any man will urge your true interest, since his honest zeal must be repaid with destruction." After insisting still farther on this delicate and dangerous subject, Demosthenes probably observed displeasure and resentment in the countenances of his hearers, and then (as his custom was) artfully turning the discourse: "I speak thus, not with a view to give offence, for I am not so mad as wantonly to offend; but because I think it the duty of a public speaker to prefer your interest to your pleasure. Such were the maxims and conduct (you yourselves know it) of those ancient and illustrious orators whom all unite to praise, but none venture to imitate; of the virtuous Aristides, of Nicias, of Pericles, and of him whose name²⁵ I bear. But since ministers have appeared who dare not address the assembly, till they have first *consulted* you about the *counsels* which they ought to give, who ask, as it were, What shall I propose? What shall I advise? In what, Athenians! can I do you pleasure? the sweet draught of flattery has concealed a deadly poison; our strength is enervated, our glory tarnished, the public beggared and disgraced, while those smooth-tongued declaimers have acquired opulence and splendour²⁶.

Consider,

²⁵ Demosthenes, who acted such a distinguished part in the Peloponnesian war. See above, vol. ii. c. xvii. p. 269, & seqq.

²⁶ It is worthy of observation that, in this discourse throughout, Demosthenes insists that the people at large enjoyed much less authority in his time than in the days of Aristides, &c. All depends,

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Consider, Athenians! how briefly the conduct of your ancestors may be contrasted with your own; for if you would pursue the road to glory and happiness, you need not foreign instructors: it will be sufficient to follow the example of those from whom you are descended. The Athenians of former times, whom the orators never courted, never treated with that indulgence to which you are accustomed, held, with general consent, the sovereignty of Greece for sixty-five years²⁷; deposited above ten thousand talents in the citadel; kept the king of Macedon in that subjection which a Barbarian owes to Greece; erected many and illustrious trophies of the exploits which their own valour had achieved by land and sea; in a word, are the only people on record whose glorious actions transcend the power of envy. Thus great in war, their civil administration was not less admirable. The stately edifices which they raised, the temples which they adorned, the dedications which they offered to the gods, will never be excelled in magnificence; but, in private life, so exemplary

depends, he asserts, on the popular orators and magistrates, “ὁ πολιτευόμενος.” Yet it is well known that, since the age of Aristides, the government had become more democratical. Demosthenes himself allows this; the orators, he says, dare not address the people now with that freedom which they used formerly.—This apparent contradiction shews the nature and tendency of that species of popular government which the Greeks called ochlogarchy.—The populace are the slaves of their demagogues, and the demagogues of the populace. Instead of liberty, there is an interchange of servitude.

²⁷ Demosthenes's chronology here is not accurate. See above, vol. iii. p. 86. in the note.

was

was their moderation, and so scrupulous their adherence to the frugal maxims of antiquity, that if any of you has examined the house of Aristides or Miltiades, he will find them undistinguished above the contiguous buildings by superior elegance or grandeur. The ambition of those illustrious statesmen was to exalt the republic, not to enrich themselves²⁸; and this just moderation, accompanied by piety and patriotism, raised their country (and no wonder!) to the height of prosperity. Such was the condition of Athens under those sincere and honest men. Is it the same, or nearly the same, under the indulgence of our present ministers? I wave other topics on which I might enlarge. But you behold in what solitude we are left. The Lacedæmonians lost; the Thebans harassed by war; no other republic worthy of aspiring to the sovereignty. Yet, at this period, when we might not only have defended our own possessions, but have become the arbiters and umpires of all around us, we have been stripped of whole provinces; we have expended fifteen hundred talents fruitlessly; we have lost, in time of peace, the alliances and advantages which the arms of our ancestors had acquired; and we have raised up and armed a most formidable enemy against ourselves. If not, let the man stand forth who can show from what other cause Philip has derived his greatness. But the miserable condition of our foreign affairs is, perhaps, compensated by the happiness of our

²⁸ Privatus illis census erat brevis

Commune magnum. HOR. ode xv. l. ii.

domestic.

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domestic state, and the splendid improvements of our capital. Roads repaired, walls whitened, *fountains*, and *follies*²⁹! And the ministers who have procured us those magnificent advantages, pass from poverty and meanness to opulence and dignity; build private palaces which insult the edifices of the public; grow greater as their country becomes less, and gradually rise on its ruins. What is the source of this disorder? It is, Athenians! that formerly the people did their duty, took the field in person, and thus kept the magistrates in awe."

Licentiousness of the Athenian troops under the profligate Charidemus.

The assembly remained insensible to the motives of interest and honour. Instead of taking the field in person, they sent to Olynthus a body of foreign infantry, amounting to four thousand, with an hundred and fifty horse, under the command of Charidemus. This unworthy general, who was the slave of his mercenaries, and of his own detestable passions, gratified the rapacity of his troops by ravaging the Macedonian province of Bottiæa, on the confines of Chalcis. At length, however, he threw his forces into Olynthus; and the besieged, encouraged by this reinforcement, hazarded another sally, in which they were defeated and repelled with considerable loss. The Athenian mercenaries were rendered every day more contemptible by their cowardice, and more dangerous by their licentiousness. The beastly Charidemus had

²⁹ Πύργοι καὶ ἀντρίαι. Demosthenes disdained not such a gingle of words when it presented itself naturally; but as it rarely occurs in his works, it is plain that he never sought for it.

neither

neither inclination nor ability to restrain their irregularities. According to his custom, he drank, at every meal, to a scandalous excess: his brutality insulted the women of Olynthus; and such was his impudent and abandoned profligacy, that he demanded of the senate, as a reward for his pretended services, a beautiful Macedonian youth, then captive in the city³⁰.

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In this state of affairs, the Olynthians a third time applied to Athens. On the present occasion, Æschines, who afterwards became such an active partisan of the Macedonian interest, particularly distinguished his zeal and his patriotism. The speech of Demosthenes, to the same purpose, is still on record. He exhorts and conjures his countrymen to send to Olynthus an army of citizens, and at the same time to make a diversion, by invading the Macedonian coast. Unless both be done, the indefatigable industry of Philip would render either ineffectual. “Have you ever considered the rapid progress of this prince? He began by taking Amphipolis, then Pydna, Potidæa, and Methoné; from thence he poured his troops into Thessaly, and became master of Pheræ, Pegasæ, and Magnesia. Then, turning towards Thrace, he over-ran provinces, conquered and divided kingdoms, and seated himself on the trophies of fallen crowns and broken sceptres. I speak not of his expedition against the Pæonians and Illyrians, into Epirus,—and where has not ambition conducted his arms? But why this long enumeration?

The cause of the Olynthians vigorously supported by Æschines and Demosthenes.

³⁰ Theopomp. apud Athen. l. x. p. 436.

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—To prove the important opportunities which your negligence has lost, and the unextinguishable ardour of an adversary, whose successive conquests continually bring him nearer to your walls. For is there a man in this assembly, whose blindness perceives not that the sufferings of the Olynthians are the forerunners of our own? The present conjuncture calls you, as with a loud voice, at length to rouse from your lethargy, and to profit by this last testimony of the bountiful protection of the gods. Another is not to be expected, after the many which you have despised and forgotten: I say *forgotten*; for favourable conjunctures, like riches, and other gifts of heaven, are remembered with gratitude, only by those who have understanding to preserve and to enjoy them. The spendthrift dissipates his thankfulness with his wealth³¹; and the same imprudent folly renders him both miserable and ungrateful.” After these bold expostulations, or rather reproaches, he encourages them to relieve Olynthus, by observing, that Philip would never have undertaken the siege of that place, if he had expected such a vigorous resistance; especially at a time when his allies were ready to revolt; when the Thessalians wished to throw off the yoke; when the Thracians and Illyrians longed to recover their freedom. Thus the power of Philip, lately represented as so formidable, is by no

³¹ The observation is uncommon, but just: *αλλα ομαι, παρκοινοι επι, οπις κ' επι της των χρηματων κτησεως· αν μεν γαρ εστα αν της λαοις κ' σωσι, μεγαλην εχει τη τυχη την χαρην. αν δε αναλωσας λαβη, συναναιωσει κ' το μνησθαι τη τυχη της χαρης.* Demost. Olynth. iii. Olynth. i. p. 2. ex edit. Wolf.

means real and solid; one vigorous effort might yet overwhelm him; and the passion of hope, as well as that of fear, is rendered subservient to the purpose of the orator. He again touches on the article of supplies; but with such caution as shews that his former more explicit observations had been heard impatiently. “As to money for the expences of the war (for without money nothing can be done), you possess, Athenians! a military fund exceeding that of any other people. But you have unfortunately withdrawn it from its original destination, to which were it restored, there could not be any necessity for extraordinary contributions. What! do you propose *in form*³², that the theatrical money should be applied to the uses of the soldiery? No, surely. But I affirm, that soldiers must be raised; that a fund has been allotted for their subsistence; and that in every well-regulated community, those who are paid by the public, ought to serve the public. To profit of the present conjuncture, we must act with vigour and celerity, we must dispatch ambassadors, to animate the neighbouring states against Philip; we must take the field in person. If war raged on the frontiers of this country, with what rapidity would the Macedonians march hither? Why will you throw away a similar opportunity? Know, that but one alternative remains, to carry the war into Macedon, or to receive it in Attica. If Olynthus resists, we may ravage the territories of Philip;

³² Such a proposal, the Athenians had absurdly declared punishable by death.

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should that republic be destroyed, who will hinder him from coming hither? The Thebans! to say nothing too severe, they would rather reinforce his arms. The Phocians! they who, without our assistance, cannot defend themselves. O! but he dares not come! It is madness to think that the designs of which he already boasts with such bold imprudence, he will not venture to execute, when nothing opposes his success³³. I think it unnecessary to describe the difference between attacking Philip at home, and waiting for him here. Were you obliged, only for one month, to encamp without the walls, and to subsist an army in the country, your husbandmen would sustain more loss than has been incurred by all the former exigencies of the war. This would happen, although the enemy kept at a distance; but at the approach and entrance of an invader, what devastation must be produced! Add to this, the insult and disgrace, the most ruinous of all losses, to men capable of reflection."

Philip
takes
Olynthus.
Olymp.
cviii. 1.
A. C. 348.

The arguments of Demosthenes prevailed; an embassy was sent into Peloponnesus, to inflame the hostility of that country against Philip; and it was determined to assist the Olynthians with an

³³ With all his policy, Philip seems to have had the vanity of a Greek. The vigour of the original is not to be translated: "Αν δε εκείνα Φίλιππος λάβῃ, τις αὐτὸν ἐτι κωλύσει δούρο βαδίζειν; Θύβαισι; μὴ λίαν πικρὸν εἰπεῖν ἢ, καὶ συνεισβάλλειν εἰς τὴν πόλιν. ἀλλὰ Φωκίαις; οἱ τῇ οἰκίᾳ εἰς οἷοι τε ὄντες φυλάττειν, εἰ μὴ βοηθήσῃτε ὑμῖν; ἢ ἄλλοις; ἀλλ' ὅταν εἴη, ἐβλήσεται—τῶν ἀποπρωτατῶν μὲντοι αὐτῶν εἴη, εἰ δ' αὖ νυν' ἀνοίαν ὀφλισκανόν, ὁμῶς ἐκλαλεῖ, ταῦτα δυνήεις μὴ πειραξέαι. I have used a little freedom with the "εἴη, ἐβλήσεται."

army

army of Athenian citizens. But before this resolution could be carried into effect, Olynthus was no more. The cavalry belonging to that place had acted with great spirit against the besiegers. As the works were too extensive to be completely invested, the Olynthian horsemen made frequent incursions³⁴ into the surrounding territory, where they not only supplied themselves with provisions and forage, but beat up the quarters, attacked the advanced posts, and intercepted the convoys of the enemy. These advantages were chiefly owing to the merit of one man. In the various skirmishes, as well as in the two general engagements which had happened since the commencement of the siege, Philip perceived that Apollonides, who commanded the enemy's horse, displayed such valour and abilities as might long retard, perhaps altogether defeat, the success of his undertaking. His secret emissaries were therefore set to work; perfidious clamours were sown among the populace of Olynthus; Apollonides was publicly accused; and, by the malignant practices of traitors, condemned to banishment on a suspicion of treason³⁵. The command of the cavalry was bestowed on Lashenes and Euthykrates, two wretches who had sold their country to Philip. Having obtained some previous successes, which had been concerted the better to mask their designs, they advanced against a Macedonian post; carried it at the first onset; pursued the flying gar-

³⁴ Diodorus, l. xvi. 53.³⁵ Demosth. de falsa Legatione.

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rison; and betrayed their own troops into an ambush prepared by the enemy. Surrounded on all sides, the Olynthians surrendered their arms; and this fatal disaster encouraging the Macedonian partisans within the walls, soon opened the gates of Olynthus³⁶. The conqueror entered in triumph, plundered and demolished the city, and dragged the inhabitants into servitude³⁷. Lasthenes, Euthycrates, and their associates, shared the same, or even a worse fate. Philip is said to have abandoned them to the indignant rage of the Macedonian soldiers, who butchered them almost before his eyes. It is certain, that though his mean and blind ambition often employed treachery, his justice or his pride always detested the traitor³⁸.

This important conquest inspires Philip with the ambition to seize Thermopylæ

The conquest of Olynthus put Philip in possession of the region of Chalcis, and the northern coast of the Ægean sea; an acquisition of territory, which rendered his dominions on that side round and complete. His kingdom was now bounded, on the north by the Thracian posses-

³⁶ Demosth. de falsa Legatione.

³⁷ Four reasons conspired to produce the severe treatment of the Olynthians: 1. Philip had lost a great many men in the siege; πολλὰς τῶν στρατιωτῶν ἐν ταῖς τειχομαχίαις ἀπέβαλεν. Diodor. p. 450. 2. The Olynthians had received his natural brothers, Aridæus and Menelaus, accused of treason. Justin. l. viii. c. iii. 3. Philip wanted money to carry on his intrigues in other cities; διασπασας δὲ αὐτὴν (scil. Οlynθον) καὶ τῶς ἐπικειντας ἐξαιδρακιδισαμενος, ἐλαφυραπώλησε τὸ τοιοῦτον πράξας, χρημάτων τε πολλῶν εἰς τὸν πόλεμον εὐπορήσει. 4. Diodorus immediately after adds the fourth reason, "That he might deter the neighbouring cities from opposing his measures." Diodor. p. 450.

³⁸ Demosth. Olynth. iii. sect. 3.

sions of Kerfobleptes, and on the south by the territory of Phocis, a province actually comprehending the straits of Thermopylæ, which had formerly belonged to a different division of Greece. Besides the general motives of interest, which prompted him to extend his dominions, he discerned the peculiar importance of acquiring the Thermopylæ and the Hellespont, since the former was emphatically styled the Gates of Greece, and the latter formed the only communication between that country and the fertile shores of the Euxine. Greece, exceeding in population the proportion of its extent and fertility, annually drew supplies of corn from those northern regions. The Athenians, in particular, had settlements even in the remote peninsula of Crim Tartary, anciently called the Taurica Chersonesus, by means of which they purchased and imported the superfluous productions of that remote climate³⁹. Their ships could only sail thither by the Hellespont; and should that important strait be reduced under the power of an enemy, they must be totally excluded from an useful, and even necessary, branch of commerce.

Philip perceived these consequences. It was the general interest of all the Grecian republics to assist Kerfobleptes and the Phocians, which was, in other words, to defend the Hellespont and Thermopylæ. The interest of the Macedonian was diametrically opposite; nor could he expect to

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and the
Hellespont.

Philip celebrates the festival of the Muses at Dium. Olymp. cviii. 1. A. C. 348.

³⁹ Demosthen. in Leptin.

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accomplish the great objects of his reign, unless he first rendered himself master of those important posts. This delicate situation furnished a proper exercise for the dexterity of Philip. After the destruction of Olynthus, he celebrated a public festival of gratitude and joy, at the neighbouring town of Dium; to which, as at the Olympian and other Grecian games, all the republics were promiscuously invited, whether friends or enemies⁴⁰. It appears that several Athenians assisted at these magnificent entertainments, which lasted nine days, in honour of the Muses, and which wanted no object of elegance or splendour, that either art could produce or wealth could purchase. The politeness and condescending affability of Philip obliterated the remembrance of his recent severity to Olynthus; and his liberal distribution of the spoils of that unfortunate city⁴¹ gained him new friends,

⁴⁰ Demosth. de falsa Legatione, & Diodor. p. 451.

⁴¹ Both Demosthenes and Diodorus mention an anecdote which does honour to Philip, and still more to Satyrus the player. After dinner, the king, according to his custom, was distributing his presents; amidst the general festivity, Satyrus alone wore a sad countenance. The king addressed him kindly, and, in the language of the times, desired him to ask a boon. Satyrus said, that such presents as others received (cups of gold, &c.) seemed to him of little value: that he had indeed something to ask, but feared a denial. Philip having encouraged him, he proceeded: "Apollophanes of Pydna was my friend: at his death, his two daughters, both arrived at a marriageable age, were sent to Olynthus, taken captive, and subjected to all the calamities of servitude. These are the presents I request, not with any design unworthy of their father or myself, but that I may give them such portions as shall enable them to marry happily." Apollophanes had been an active opponent, and even
the

friends, and confirmed the attachment of his old partisans.

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Amidst these scenes of rejoicing and festivity, Philip seems not to have forgotten, one moment, that the most immediate object of his policy was to detach the Athenians from the cause of Phocis and Kerfobleptes, who were both their allies. For this purpose, while he courted individuals with peculiar address, he determined to make the public feel the inconvenience of the war, the better to prepare them for the insidious proposal of a separate peace. The bad conduct of Chares left the sea open to the Macedonians, who had silently acquired a considerable naval force. Philip begun to attack the Athenians on their favourite element. His fleet ravaged their tributary islands of Lemnos and Imbros; surprised and took a squadron of Athenian vessels, stationed on the southern coast of Eubœa; and, encouraged by these advantages, boldly sailed to Attica, made a descent on the shore of Marathon, repelled the Athenian cavalry, headed by Deotimus, ravaged the territory, and carried off the Salaminian galley. From thence they proceeded to the isle of Salamis, and defeated a considerable detachment commanded by Charidemus. The illustrious trophies of Marathon and Salamis were effaced by the insults of the Macedonians, whose fleet returned home in triumph,

Philip unexpectedly
commits
naval depredations
on Attica.

the personal enemy, of Philip; yet this prince granted the request of Satyrus, and enabled him liberally to provide for the daughters of his friend.

CHAP. adorned with hostile spoils, and with military and
XXXV. naval glory ⁴².

His in-
trigues
gave him
possession
of Eubœa.

The activity of Philip seconded his good fortune. His intrigues were renewed in Eubœa. Under pretence of delivering the island from the tyranny and extortions of Molossus, the Athenian commander, he landed such a body of troops there, as proved sufficient, with the assistance of his adherents, to expel the Athenians. Such a multiplication of calamities might have disgusted that people with the war against Philip, whose hostility, directed against them alone, seemed to have for-

His deceit-
ful embassy
to Athens;

gotten the Phocians and Kersebleptes; when secret but zealous partisans of Macedon arrived at Athens, as ambassadors from Eubœa, commissioned to settle amicably all differences between the two countries. They observed, that Philip had left the island absolutely free and independent; and that, though constrained to take arms in defence of his allies, he was sincerely desirous of making peace with the Athenians. The representations of the Eubœan ambassadors were enforced by the influence of two Athenians, Aristodemus and Neoptolemus, the first distinguished as a player, the second as a player and poet, who having acquired fortunes in Macedon, returned to their own coun-

⁴² In the chronology of these events, I have followed Dr. Leland. See his *Life of Philip*, vol. ii. p. 43. The events themselves are related in the oration of Demosthenes commonly entitled the First Philippic, but which the Doctor, with great probability, considers as two distinct orations spoken at different times.

try, to forward the measures of their liberal protector. They affirmed that the king of Macedon earnestly wished to live on good terms with the republic; and the Athenians paid much regard to men, whose talents were then highly esteemed, and who had remitted the riches amassed in a foreign country, to purchase lands in Attica, and to supply with alacrity the exigencies of the public service.

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Demosthenes saw through these dark and deep artifices⁴³; but in vain endeavoured to alarm the unsuspecting credulity of his countrymen. On a future occasion, after the plot had become manifest, he upbraids their careless indifference and delusion at this important crisis. “Had you been spectators in the theatre, and not deliberating on matters of the highest moment, you could not have heard Neoptolemus with more indulgence, nor me with more resentment⁴⁴.”

in vain exposed by Demosthenes.

Such was the disposition of the assembly, when Æschines returned from his Peloponnesian embassy. He had assembled the great council of the Arcadians; revealed to them the dangerous views of Philip, which threatened the liberty of Greece; and, notwithstanding the powerful opposition of Hieronymus, and other Macedonian partisans, had engaged that people to approve the patriot zeal of Athens, and to deliberate on taking arms in the common cause. In relating the success of his embassy, he inveighed with great severity against

Æschines returns from his embassy, and awakens the public resentment against Philip.

⁴³ Demosthen. de Chersoneso, & de Pace.

⁴⁴ Demosthen. de Chersoneso.

CHAP. those mercenary traitors, who had sold the interests
 XXXV. of their country to a cruel tyrant. The Greeks
 had full warning of their danger. The miserable
 fate of Olynthus ought ever to be before their
 eyes. At his return through Peloponnesus, he
 had beheld a sight sufficient to melt the most ob-
 durate heart; thirty young Olynthians, of both
 sexes, driven like a herd of cattle, as a present
 from Philip to some of the unworthy instruments
 of his ambition⁴⁵.

The susceptible and ever-varying temper of the
 multitude was deeply affected by the representa-
 tions of Æschines; the pacific advices of Neopto-
 lemus and his associates were forgotten; war and
 revenge again echoed through the assembly. At
 the requisition of Æschines, ambassadors were
 dispatched to confirm the hostile resolutions of the
 Arcadians, and to awaken the terror of the neigh-
 bouring republics. The Athenian youth were as-
 sembled in the temple of Agraulos to swear irre-
 concilable hatred against Philip and the Mace-
 donians; and the most awful imprecations were
 denounced against the mercenary traitors who co-
 operated with the public enemy. This fermenta-
 tion might at length have purified into strong and
 decisive measures; and had Philip possessed only
 an ordinary degree of vigilance, a confederacy
 might have been yet formed in Greece sufficient to
 repel the Macedonian arms. But that consum-
 mate politician thought nothing done while any

⁴⁵ Demosthen. de falsa Legatione, sect. 5.

thing was neglected; and, as he allowed not the slightest opportunity to pass unimproved, he often derived very important benefits from seemingly inconsiderable causes.

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An Athenian of the name of Phrynon, a man wealthy and powerful, had been attacked, robbed, and confined by some Macedonian soldiers, who obliged him to purchase his liberty by a very considerable ransom ⁴⁶. As this violence had been committed during the fifteen days of truce that followed the celebration of the Olympic games, Phrynon very judiciously supposed that the king of Macedon, who had long been ambitious of obtaining a place in the Grecian confederacy, would not abet this act of injustice and impiety. He had therefore requested his countrymen, who at that time prepared to negotiate with Philip an exchange of prisoners, to join him in commission with Ctesiphon, a man of experience and capacity, who had been already named to that embassy; imagining that by appearing in a public character, he might the more easily recover the ransom and other monies that had been unjustly extorted from him. Having arrived in Macedon, the ambassadors were received and treated by Philip with uncommon politeness and respect; their demands were most obligingly granted, or rather prevented; the king apologised to Phrynon for the ignorant rusticity of his soldiers, which had led them to act so unwarrantably; and he lamented both to Phrynon and Ctesiphon, the necessity of their present

Dexterity
of that
prince in
diverting
the storm.

⁴⁶ Æschines de falsa Legatione.

mission,

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mission, since he had nothing more sincerely at heart than to live on good terms with their republic⁴⁷. At their return to Athens, the representations of such men could not be without weight; nor could they fail being extremely favourable to the king of Macedon.

He improves every favourable incident.

Another incident followed, which was improved with no less dexterity⁴⁸. At the taking and sack of Olynthus, Stratocles and Eucrates, two Athenians of distinction, had been seized and carried into Macedon. By some accident these men had not been released with the other prisoners. Their relations were anxious for their safety, and therefore applied to the Athenians, that a proper person might be sent to treat of their ransom. Aristodemus was employed in this commission, but was more attentive to paying his court than performing his duty; and, at his return home, neglected to give an account of his negotiation. Philip, meanwhile, whose vigilance never slept, and who well knew the hostile resolutions in agitation against him at Athens, released the prisoners without ransom, and dismissed them with the highest expressions of regard. Moved by gratitude, Stratocles appeared in the assembly, blazed forth the praises of the king of Macedon, and loudly complained against the careless indifference of Aristodemus, who had neglected to report his embassy⁴⁹.

The Athenians are persuaded

The artful player, thus called upon to act his part, excused his omitting to relate *one* example of

⁴⁷ Æschines de falsa Legatione.

⁴⁸ Id. *ibid.*

⁴⁹ Id. *ibid.*
kindness,

kindness, in a man who had recently given so many proofs of the most unbounded generosity. He expatiated on the candour and benevolence of Philip, and especially on his profound respect for the republic, with which, he assured them, the king of Macedon was earnest to conclude a peace, and even to enter into an alliance, on the most honourable and advantageous terms. He probably reminded them of the misfortunes which had attended their arms since they commenced war against this prince. Fifteen hundred talents expended with disgrace; seventy-five dependent cities, including those of the Chalcidic region, lost irrecoverably; Olynthus destroyed; Eubœa revolted; Athens dishonoured and exhausted; and Macedon more powerful and more respected than at any former period. This representation did not exceed the truth; and the calamities of the war had long inclined to peace the more moderate and judicious portion of the assembly. The artificial generosity of Philip, in his treatment of Phrynon and Stratocles, blazoned by the eloquence of Aristodemus, fixed the wavering irresolution of the multitude. The military preparations were suspended. Even Demosthenes and Æschines yielded to the torrent; and imagining that a bad peace was better than a bad war (since it was impossible to expect success from the fluctuating councils of their country), supported a decree⁵⁰ of Philocrates for sending a

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to send an
embassy to
Philip.

⁵⁰ The decree was attacked by one Licinus. Demosthenes defended it; and both Demosthenes and Æschines, as appears from the text, were on the embassy.

CHAP. herald and ambassadors to discover the real intentions of Philip, and to hearken to the terms of accommodation with which he had so long amused them.

Character
of the am-
bassadors.

The ministers appointed to this commission seem to have been purposely chosen among men of opposite principles, who might mutually be checks on each other. Phrynon, Ctesiphon, Aristodemus, and Philocrates, who had uniformly testified their confidence in the king of Macedon, were opposed by Æschines and Demosthenes, who had long discovered their suspicions of that prince. To the embassy were added Nausicles and Dercyllus, men distinguished by the public offices which they had discharged with equal patriotism and fidelity; Jatrocles, the chosen friend of Æschines; and Cimon, illustrious for the name he bore, which descended to him from the greatest and most fortunate of the Athenian commanders. The whole number amounted to ten, besides Agalocreon of Tenedos, who was sent on the part of the Greek islands in alliance with Athens⁵⁴.

Difficulties occasioned by the quarrel between Demosthenes and Æschines.

Thus far contemporary authors agree; but in describing the events which followed the departure of the ambassadors, all is inconsistency and contradiction. The misunderstanding that arose between Æschines and Demosthenes, the former of whom was impeached by the latter, furnish us, in the accusation and defence, with the fullest and most diffuse, but at the same time the least authentic, materials, that present themselves in any passage of

⁵⁴ Demosthen. & Æschin. de falsa Legatione.

Grecian history. The whole train of the negotiation, as well as the events connected with it, are represented in colours the most discordant; facts are asserted and denied; while both parties appeal to the memory of the assembly before which they spoke, to the testimony of witnesses, and even to the evidence of public decrees and records; circumstances that must appear very extraordinary, unless we consider that suborning of witnesses, perjury, and even the falsifying of laws and records, were crimes not unusual at Athens⁵². Amidst this confusion, the discerning eye of criticism would vainly endeavour to penetrate the truth. Æschines was indeed acquitted by his countrymen. But nothing positive can be learned from a partial sentence, pronounced three years after the alleged crimes had been committed, when the power of Philip had increased to such an alarming degree, as gave his faction a decided ascendant even in the Athenian assembly.

To disentangle such perplexity, we shall keep chiefly to those facts which are allowed on both sides, deducing from them such consequences as seem most natural and probable. In the course of one year, three embassies were sent to Philip; the first to propose a peace, the second to ratify it, the third to see the conditions of it observed; and in that space of time Kerfobleptes, being stripped of his dominions, was reduced into captivity, and Philip having seized Thermopylæ, invaded Phocis,

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Account
of the ne-
gociation.
Olymp.
cvi. 1.
cvi. 2.
A. C. 348
and 347.

⁵² See my Discourse on the Character and Manners of the Athenians, prefixed to Lyfias and Isocrates.

and

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and destroyed the twenty-two cities of that province in less than twenty-two days. Nor was this all: a foreign prince having made himself master of Thermopylæ and the Hellespont, the most valuable safeguards of Greece—having invaded and desolated the territory of a Grecian republic, the most respectable for its antiquity, power, and wealth, the seat of the Amphictyonic council, and of the revered oracle of Delphi—These daring measures tended so little to excite the displeasure of Greece, that the king of Macedon had no sooner accomplished them, than he threatened to attack Athens (who weakly lamented calamities which she had neither prudence nor courage to prevent) at the head of a general confederacy of the Amphictyonic states.

Diffension
of the am-
bassadors.

Such extraordinary transactions, of which history scarcely offers another example for the instruction of posterity, Demosthenes ascribes entirely to the corruption and perfidy of the Athenian ambassadors. “The felicity of Philip,” he says, “consists chiefly in this; that having occasion for traitors, fortune has given him men treacherous and corrupt beyond his most sanguine hopes and prayers⁵³.” This, doubtless, is the exaggeration of an orator, desirous by every means to blacken the character of his colleagues in the embassy, and particularly that of his adversary Æschines. Yet it will appear, from the most careful survey of the

⁵³ Subsequent writers have copied the language of Demosthenes, καὶ χρηματὶ πλείους διαδόντες τοῖς ἐν ταῖς πόλεσι ἰσχυροῖς, πολλὰς ἐσχὲν πείσοντας τῷ πατριῶναι. Diodorus, ubi supra.

events of those times, that the incapacity and neglect, if not the treason, of the Athenian ministers, greatly contributed to the success of the Macedonian arms.

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From the first moment of their departure from Athens, the ambassadors began to betray their mutual jealousies and suspicions of each other's fidelity. The dangerous character of Philocrates was equally dreaded by Æschines and Demosthenes⁵⁴; and the latter, if we may believe his rival, so much disgusted the other ambassadors, by the morose severity of his temper, that they had almost excluded him their society; a circumstance rendered credible, not merely by the partial evidence of an adversary, but by the resentment and indignation always expressed by Demosthenes against the behaviour of his colleagues. Having arrived at Pella, they were introduced to an audience; and spoke, as had been agreed on, in the order of their seniority. The discourse of Æschines was the most copious and elaborate, but seemed rather calculated for gaining merit with the Athenian assembly, than for influencing the conduct of Philip. "He recalled to the memory of the king, the favours of the Athenians towards his ancestors; the distressed condition of the children of Amyntas; the solicitations of Euridicé; and the generous interpositions of Iphicrates, to whom the family of Philip owed the crown of Macedon. Having touched slightly on the ungrateful returns made by Ptolemy and Perdiccas; he dwelt on the

Conference of
the ambaf-
sadors with
Philip.

Speech of
Æschines.

⁵⁴ Demosthen. & Æschin. de falsa Legatione.

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injustice of those hostilities which Philip had committed against the republic, especially in taking Amphipolis, which his father Amyntas had acknowledged to be a dependent colony of Athens. He insisted on the impropriety of retaining this possession, which as it could not be claimed by any ancient title, neither could it be held by the right of conquest, not being gained in any war between the two states. In the time of profound peace between Athens and Macedon, Philip had taken from the Amphipolitans an Athenian city, which it concerned his justice and his honour to restore, without delay, to its lawful and acknowledged owners."

That of
Demof-
thenes.

Had Æschines wished to furnish Philip with a pretence for protracting the negociation, he could not have done it more effectually than by such a demand. It could not possibly be expected, that a victorious monarch should set bounds to his own triumphs, in order to purchase peace by tamely surrendering one of the most important of his acquisitions. In this light the proposal appeared to Demosthenes, who thought that his colleague had totally forgotten the object of the embassy, the distressed state of Athens, how greatly the people had been harassed by the war, and how eagerly they wished for peace. It was now his own turn to speak before a prince whom he had often and highly offended, whose character and actions he had ever viewed and represented with the utmost severity; but whom, on the present occasion, it was his business to soothe rather than to irritate.

The

The novelty of the situation might have disconcerted a man of less sensibility than Demosthenes. The envious jealousy of his colleagues was prepared to listen, with a malicious ear, to those irresistible arguments which the orator is said to have promised, with a very unbecoming confidence; the Macedonian courtiers expected some prodigy of eloquence from the perpetual opponent of their admired master. Amidst the silent suspense of an unfavourable audience, Demosthenes began to speak with ungrateful hesitation, and after uttering a few obscure and interrupted sentences, his memory totally forsook him. Philip endeavoured to remove his embarrassment with a mortifying politeness, telling him that he was not now in a theatre⁵⁵, where such an accident might be attended with disagreeable consequences; and exhorting him to take time for recollection, and to pursue his intended discourse. Demosthenes again began, but without better success. The assembly beheld his confusion with a malignant pleasure; and the ambassadors were ordered to withdraw.

His embarrassment and confusion.

After a proper interval, they were summoned to the royal presence. Philip received them with great dignity, and answered with precision and elegance the arguments respectively used by the several speakers, particularly those of Æschines.

Philip answers the ambassadors;

⁵⁵ Notwithstanding the passion of the Athenians for dramatic entertainments, and their consideration for the character of players beyond that of any other nation, they were indecently severe against their negligences and faults on the theatre; as appears from various passages of the judicial orations of Demosthenes and Æschines.

CHAP. The confused hints of Demosthenes he passed over
 XXXV. with merited neglect; thus proving to the world,
 that the man who had ever arraigned him with
 most severity in the tumultuous assemblies of
 Greece, had not dared to say any thing in his pre-
 sence which deserved the smallest notice or reply.

invites
 them to
 an enter-
 tainment.

The ambassadors were then invited to an enter-
 tainment, where Demosthenes is said to have be-
 haved with great weakness, and where Philip dis-
 played such powers of merriment and festivity, as
 eclipsed his talents for negociation and war. The
 ambassadors were persuaded of his candour and
 sincerity, and dismissed with a letter to the people
 of Athens, assuring them that his intentions were
 truly pacific, and that as soon as they consented
 to an alliance with him, he would freely indulge
 those sentiments of affection and respect which he
 had ever entertained for their republic.

Their de-
 parture
 from Ma-
 cedon.

Artifices
 of Demos-
 thenes.

The mortification which Demosthenes had re-
 ceived, made him at first vent his chagrin by con-
 demning the conduct of his colleagues; but when
 he reflected, that a fair representation of facts
 would greatly depreciate his character at Athens,
 policy prevailed over resentment. He began
 privately to tamper with his companions on the
 road, freely rallied the confusion into which he
 had been betrayed, extolled the ready genius and
 memory of Æschines; and endeavoured, by pro-
 mises and flattery, to ingratiate himself with those
 whom his recent behaviour had justly provoked
 and disgusted. In a conversation at Larissa in
 Thessaly, he acknowledged the masterly reason-
 ing

ing of the king of Macedon. The ambassadors all joined in the praises of this extraordinary man. Æschines admired the strength and perspicuity with which he had answered their respective discourses; and Ctesiphon cried out in transport, that, in the course of a long life, he had never beheld a man of such a polite and engaging deportment. Demosthenes then artfully said, "he apprehended they would not venture to make such representations to the Athenian assembly; that their honour and safety required them to be consistent in their reports;" to which they all assented; and Æschines acknowledges, that he was prevailed on by the intreaties of his rival to promise, that he would give a favourable and false account of the behaviour of Demosthenes, and assure the people of Athens, that he had spoken with dignity and firmness on the affair of Amphipolis.

According to the forms of the republic, the ambassadors first reported the success of their negotiation, and delivered the letter of Philip, to the senate of the Five Hundred. They explained, in order, what each had said in presence of the king; when Demosthenes, rising up the last, affirmed with his usual oath of asseveration⁵⁵, "that the ambassadors had not spoken in the senate as they did before Philip; that they had spoken much better in Macedon:" he then moved, that they should be honoured with a crown of

They report their negotiation to the senate.

⁵⁵ Μὲν Διᾶ, indecently explained "by Jove," since the expression is elliptical, and includes a short prayer, εὐχομαι τὸν Διᾶ σὺνέειν τὰ ἐμὰ; "my assertion is true, may Jove thus protect me."

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The same reported to the assembly;

Extraordinary behaviour of Demosthenes.

The day following, they made their report to the assembly of the people; when the ambassadors, finding the subject not disagreeable to their hearers, expatiated on the politeness, condescension, eloquence, and abilities of the prince, with whom their republic was ready not only to negotiate a peace, but to contract an alliance. Having allowed them to exhaust this fertile subject, Demosthenes at length arose, and, after those contortions of body, which, if we believe his adversary, were familiar to him, declared, that he was equally surpris'd at those who, in a deliberation of such importance, could talk of such trifles, and at those who could endure to hear them. "The negotiation may be briefly reported. Here is the decree by which we are commissioned. We have executed this commission. Here is Philip's answer (pointing to the letter). You have only to examine its contents." A confused murmur arose in the assembly, some applauding the strength and precision of the speech, others condemning the asperity of the speaker. As soon as he could be heard, Demosthenes thus proceeded: "You shall see how I will lop off those superfluous matters. Æschines praises the memory and eloquence of Philip, in which, however, I find nothing extraordinary, since any other man, placed in the same advantage-

⁵⁶ See the Discourse of Lyfias on an accusation for cutting down a consecrated olive.

⁵⁷ Æschin. de falsa Legatione.

ous circumstances of rank and fortune, would be equally attended to and admired. Ctesiphon praises the gracefulness and dignity of his person; my colleague Aristodemus does not yield to him in these particulars. Others admire his mirth and gaiety at table; yet in such qualities Philocrates excels him⁵⁸. But this is unseasonable. I shall therefore draw up a decree for convening an extraordinary assembly, to deliberate on the peace and the alliance⁵⁹."

The decree was proposed on the eighth of March, and the assembly was fixed for the seventeenth of the same month. In the interval, arrived, as ambassadors from Philip, Antipater, the most respected of his ministers; Parmenio, the bravest of his generals; and Eurylochus, who united, almost in an equal degree, the praise of eloquence and valour. Parmenio had been employed in the siege of Halus, a place filled with malcontents from Thessaly, who still resisted the Macedonian power in that country. That he might have leisure to join his colleagues, Parmenio ordered the siege to be converted into a blockade; and the merit of three such ambassadors sufficiently announced the important purposes which Philip wished to effect by the present negotiation. They were received with great distinction by the senate, and (what seems extraordinary) lodged in the house of Demosthenes,

⁵⁸ Even by Demosthenes's testimony, it required the combination of several Athenian characters to match the various excellencies of Philip.

⁵⁹ *Æschin. de falsa Legatione.*

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who was careful to adorn their seats in the theatre, and to distinguish them by every other mark of honour⁶⁰. Having been introduced, on the appointed day, into the assembly, they declared the object of their commission, to conclude in the name of their master a peace and alliance with the people of Athens. Demosthenes, in an elaborate speech, urged the expediency of listening to their demands; but without neglecting the interest of the Athenian allies. Æschines delivered the same opinion, and severely reproached Philocrates, who urged the necessity of precipitating the treaty. The two first days were spent in debate; but on the third, the influence of Philocrates prevailed, chiefly, if we believe Demosthenes, by the unexpected accession of Æschines to that party. He, who had hitherto been a strenuous defender of the interest of Kersobleptes, declared that he had now altered his opinion. That peace was necessary for Athens, and ought not to be retarded by the slow deliberations of other powers. That the circumstances of the republic were changed; and that, in their actual situation, it was an idle vanity to attend to those who flattered them with pompous panegyrics of the magnanimity of their ancestors; since the weakness of Athens was no longer called on to undertake the protection of every state that could not defend its own cause⁶¹."

who corrupt
Æschines.

During the
negotia-
tion, Phi-

Demosthenes had formerly suspected the treachery of Æschines; but this speech fully convinced him,

⁶⁰ Æschin. in Ctesiphont.

⁶¹ Demosthen. de falsa Legatione.

that

that if his adversary had not before sold himself to Philip, he had then been tampered with, and gained by the Macedonian ambassadors. But Demosthenes, and the assembly in general, saw the necessity of immediately ratifying the peace with that prince, who had actually taken the field in Thrace, along the coast of which the Athenians still possessed Serrium, Doriscus, and several other tributary cities. A decree was proposed for this purpose, and ambassadors were named, who might, with all convenient speed, repair to Philip, in order mutually to give and receive the oaths and ratifications of the treaty just concluded at Athens. The ambassadors were Eubulus, Æschines, Ctesiphon, Democrates, and Cleon; the principal of whom, being entirely devoted to the Macedonian interest, contrived various pretences to delay their departure. In this interval, Kerfobleptes met with the unhappy fate of which we have already taken notice; and Philip, encouraged by the success of his intrigues, ventured to attack the cities of Serrium and Doriscus, which readily submitted to his arms⁶². Upon intelligence of the latter event, the Athenians dispatched Euclides to inform the king of Macedon, that the places which he had taken belonged to Athens; to which he coldly replied, that he had not been so instructed by his ambassadors, nor was there any mention of those cities in the treaty recently signed, but not yet ratified, between the two powers.

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lip continues to make conquests in Thrace.

Æschines and his colleagues still delayed to set out, although the conduct of Philip continually

Third embassy to Philip.

⁶² Demosthen. Orat. v. in Philipp.

urged

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urged the necessity of hastening their departure. They were finally ordered to begone, in consequence of a decree proposed by Demosthenes⁶³, who was unable to prevail on the Athenians, till it was too late, to pay due regard to the interest of Kerfobleptes. In twenty-five days the Athenian ministers arrived at Pella, a journey which they might have performed in six; and instead of directly proceeding to Philip, who was employed in reducing the cities on the Propontis, they patiently waited, above three weeks, the return of that monarch to his capital. During their residence in Pella, they were joined by Demosthenes, who, at his own request, had been added to this commission, under pretence of ransoming some Athenian captives, but in reality with a view to watch the conduct of his colleagues. Philip at length arrived: the ambassadors were called to an audience. On this occasion they spoke, not as formerly, according to their respective ages, but in an order, if we believe Æschines, first established by the impudence of Demosthenes; whose discourse, as represented by his adversary, must have appeared highly ridiculous, even in an age when the decent formality of public transactions was little known or regarded.

Speech of
Demosthe-
nes;

Anticipating his more experienced colleagues, he observed, "That they were unfortunately divided in their views and sentiments. That his own were strictly conformable to those of Philip. From

⁶³ Demosth. de falsa Legatione.

the beginning he had advised a peace and alliance with Macedon. That he had procured all possible honours for the ambassadors of that country during their residence in Athens, and had afterwards escorted their journey as far as Thebes. He knew that his good intentions had been misrepresented to Philip, on account of some expressions that had dropped from him in the Athenian assembly. But if he had denied the superior excellence of that prince in beauty, in drinking, and in debate⁶⁴, it was, because he believed such qualities to belong to a woman, a sponge, and a hireling rhetorician and sophist, rather than to a warlike monarch, and mighty conqueror." This extraordinary apology excited the derision of the Macedonian courtiers, and made the Athenian ambassadors hold down their heads in confusion⁶⁵.

Æschines first recovered his composure; and modestly addressing Philip, observed, "That the present was not a proper occasion for the Athenian ministers to praise or to defend their own conduct. They had been deemed worthy of their commission by the republic which employed them, and to which alone they were accountable⁶⁶. Their actual business was to receive Philip's oath in ratification of the treaty already concluded on the part of Athens. The military preparations carrying on in every part of Macedon could not but ex-

of Æschines.

⁶⁴ See above, p. 119.

⁶⁵ Æschin. de falsa Legatione.

⁶⁶ The speech of Æschines, as reported by himself, is inimitably graceful and dignified. Λεγων' ὅτι πεμφθεὶς ἡμᾶς Ἀθηναῖοι προέ-
βου, &c. Vid. p. 261, & seqq. edit. Wolf.

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cite their fears for the unhappy Phocians. But he intreated Philip, that, if he was determined to gratify the Thebans by making war on that unfortunate people, he would make at least a proper distinction between the innocent and the guilty. The sacrilegious violators of the temple ought to be punished with due severity; the state itself must be spared; since the laws and institutions of Greece guard the safety of every Amphiſtyonic city. *Æſchines* then ſpoke, in the ſevereſt terms, againſt the injuſtice and cruelty of the Thebans, who, he ventured to prophesy, would repay the partiality of Philip with the ſame falſehood and ingratitude with which they had been accuſtomed to requite their former allies and benefactors."

Philip's
profound
diſſimula-
tion in
treaties
with the
Athenian
ambaffa-
dors.

The diſcourſe of *Æſchines*, though it could not be expected to move the reſolutions of the king, was well calculated to raiſe the credit of the ſpeaker, when it ſhould be reported in his own country. Philip confined himſelf to vague expreſſions of friendſhip and reſpect. The ambaffadors of Thebes were already at Pella, a circumſtance which furniſhed him with a pretence for declining to make an explicit declaration in favour of Phocis. But he hinted his compaſſionate concern for that republic; and requested the Athenians to accompany him to Theſſaly, that he might avail himſelf of their abilities and experience to ſettle the affairs of that country, which required his immediate preſence. Extraordinary as this demand was, the Athenians readily complied with it, notwithſtanding the king, who had ordered his army to march, was
attended

attended in this expedition by the ambassadors of Thebes, who, as well as the Athenians, were daily entertained at his table, and whose views were diametrically opposite to the interests both of Phocis and of Athens⁶⁷.

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The unhappy and distracted situation of the former republic promised a speedy issue to the Sacred War, which, for more than two years, had been feebly carried on between the Phocians on one side, and the Thebans and Locrians on the other, by such petty incursions and ravages as indicated the inveterate rancour of combatants, who still retained the desire of hurting, after they had lost the power⁶⁸. During the greater part of that time, the Athenians, amused by their negotiation with Philip, afforded no assistance to their unfortunate allies. The treasures of Delphi, immense as they were, at length began to fail. The Phocians, thus abandoned and exhausted, reflected with terror and remorse on their past conduct; and, in order to make atonement for their sacrilegious violations of the temple, instituted a judicial enquiry against Phaleucus, their general, and his accomplices, in plundering the dedications to Apollo⁶⁹. Several were condemned to death; Phaleucus was deposed; and the Phocians, having performed these substantial acts of justice, which tended to remove the odium that had long adhered to their cause, solicited with better hopes of success the assistance of Sparta and Athens.

The Phocian war carried on with little activity on either side. Olymp. cviii. 2. A. C. 349.

The Phocians condemn the plunderers of the temple.

⁶⁷ Demosthen. de falsa Legatione.

⁶⁸ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 454.

⁶⁹ Idem, l. xvi. p. 452.

But

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The Spartans claim the superintendence of the temple.

Phaleucus and his mercenaries seize Nicæa.

*Disaster of the Phocians in the temple of Abæan Apollo.

But the crafty Archidamus, who had long directed the Spartan councils, considered the distress of the Phocians as a favourable opportunity to urge the claim of his own republic to the superintendence of the Delphic temple; and actually sent ambassadors into Thessaly, to confer with the king of Macedon on that subject⁷⁰. The Athenians paid more attention to the request of their allies, who, as an inducement to excite their activity, offered to put them in possession of the towns of Nicæa, Alpenus, and Thronium, which commanded the straits of Thermopylæ. But this salutary plan, which might have retarded the fate of Greece, was defeated by Phaleucus, who commanding eight thousand mercenaries, that acknowledged no authority but that of their general, established his head-quarters at Nicæa, and despised the menaces both of Phocis and of Athens.

Mortifying as this disappointment must have been, it was followed by a disaster in another quarter still more terrible. The Phocians had fortified the city of Abæ, to defend their northern frontier against the depredations of the Locrians. The Thebans, reinforced by some auxiliaries of Macedon, marched against that place. The Phocians, with more courage than prudence, met them in the field; but were defeated with great slaughter, and pursued, in their disordered flight, through the surrounding territory. A party of above five hundred took refuge in the temple of

⁷⁰ Demosthen. & Æschin. ubi supra.

Abæan Apollo, where they remained for several days, sleeping under the porticoes, on beds of dried herbs, straw, and other combustible materials. An accidental fire, that began in the night, was communicated to the whole edifice, part of which was consumed, while the unhappy Phocians were stifled, or burnt to ashes⁷¹.

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The Thebans failed not to represent this calamity as a judgment of heaven, against the daring impiety of wretches, who had ventured to take refuge in the temple of a god whom their sacrilege had long offended. They entreated Philip to assist them in destroying the remnant of the guilty race. This was the chief purpose of their embassy to that prince, whom the Athenians, as related above, entreated to spare the nation, while he punished the criminals; and the Lacedæmonians, regardless of the fate of Phocis, thought only of making good their ancient claim to the guardianship of the Delphic temple.

The Thebans instigate Philip to desolate Phocis.

Philip treated the deputies of the three republics with apparent frankness and cordiality, under the veil of which he knew so well to disguise the interests of his policy and ambition. He assured the Thebans, that his arms should be employed to recover for them the towns of Orchomenus, Coroneæ, and Tilphosseum, which, ever ready to rebel against a tyrannical capital, had readily submitted to the Phocians, during their invasion of Bœotia. The Phocians, he said, had rendered

Philip attempts in vain to corrupt the Theban ambassadors.

⁷¹ Diodorus, p. 454.

themselves

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themselves the objects of divine displeasure; it would be as meritorious to punish, as it was impious to protect them. He was determined that both they and their allies should suffer those calamities which their crimes so justly deserved. Thus far Philip was sincere; for, in these particulars, the views of Thebes were exactly conformable to his own. But in his mind he agitated other matters, in which the interest of Thebes interfered with that of Macedon. To accomplish those purposes, without offending his allies, it was necessary to gain the ambassadors. Caresses, flattery, and promises, were lavished in vain. Money was at length tendered with a profuse liberality; but, though no man ever possessed more address than Philip in rendering his bribes acceptable, the Theban deputies remained honest and uncorrupted, firmly maintaining to the end their patriotism and their honour. Philon, the chief of the embassy, answered for his colleagues: "We are already persuaded of your friendship for us, independent of your presents. Reserve your generosity for our country, on which it will be more profitably bestowed, since your favours, conferred on Thebes, will ever excite the gratitude both of that republic and its ministers⁷²."

Philip
corrupts
and de-
ceives the
Athenian
ambassa-
dors.

Demosthenes extols the dignity of this reply, as becoming rather the ambassadors of Athens. But these ministers, though one object of their commission was to save the Grecian state which the

⁷² Demosthen. de falsa Legatione.

Thebans

Thebans wished to destroy, discovered neither integrity nor spirit. All of them, but Demosthenes himself, accepted the presents of the king of Macedon, who found little difficulty in persuading men, thus prepossessed in his favour, that he pitied the Phocians; that he respected Athens; that he detested the insolence of Thebes; and that, should he ever proceed to the straits of Thermopylæ, his expedition would be more dangerous to that state than to its enemies. At present, however, he observed, that he had private reasons for managing the friendship of a people who set no bounds to their resentment. From such motives, he had hitherto declined ratifying the peace with Athens; but this measure he would no longer defer. He only entreated, that to save appearances with the Thebans, the name of the Phocians might be omitted in the treaty. This arduous work was at length brought to a conclusion; and, for the more secrecy, transacted in a place which Demosthenes calls a tavern, adjoining to the temple of Pollux, in the neighbourhood of Pheræ. The Athenian ambassadors took leave, affecting to be persuaded (perhaps persuaded in reality) of the good intentions of the king of Macedon. About the same time, the ambassadors of Sparta departed, but with far less satisfaction. They either perceived, from the beginning, the artifices of the prince with whom they came to treat, or at least made such a report to Archidamus, as convinced him that his republic had not any advantage to expect from the preponderance of the Macedonian in-

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Philip's
flattering
letter to
the Athe-
nians.

terest, and the destruction of the Phocians; and that, should the Spartans persist in their claim to the superintendence of the Delphic temple, they must prepare to assert it by force of arms.

Archidamus raised an army for this purpose, and marched towards the straits. But the intrigues of Philip, as we shall have occasion to relate, rendered his hostility as impotent as his negociations had been fruitless. From Thessaly that prince had already sent a letter to the Athenians, couched in the most artful terms. He expressed his profound respect for the state, and his high esteem for its ambassadors; declaring that he should omit no opportunity of proving how earnestly he desired to promote the prosperity and glory of Athens. He requested that the means might be pointed out to him, by which he could most effectually gratify the people. Of the conditions of the peace and alliance, he was careful to make no mention; but after many other general declarations of his goodwill, he entreated them "not to be offended at his detaining their ambassadors, of whose eloquence and abilities he wished to avail himself in settling the affairs of Thessaly."⁷³

Æschines
gives an
account of
the em-
bassy to the
Athenian
assembly.

Soon afterwards these ambassadors returned home; and having given an account of their negociation to the senate of the Five hundred, with very little satisfaction to that select body, they next appeared before the popular assembly. Æschines first mounted the rostrum, and in an elaborate and artful dis-

⁷³ Demosthen. & Æschin. ubi supra.

course,

course, set forth the advantages resulting from his successful embassy, in which he had persuaded Philip to embrace precisely those measures which the interest of Athens required. That, now, the people had peace instead of war, and that, without harassing themselves by military expeditions, they had only to remain quietly at home, enjoying the amusements of the city, and in a few days they would learn that Philip had passed Thermopylæ, to take vengeance, not on the Phocians, but on the Thebans, who had been the real authors of the war, and who, having entertained a design of seizing the temple, were not the less culpable (as had been proved to Philip) because they had failed in this impious purpose. That the Bœotian allies of Thespiæ and Plataea, whose hatred to Thebes was as inveterate as their attachment to Athens was sincere, would be restored to their pristine strength and splendour. That the Thebans, not the Phocians, would be compelled to pay the fine imposed by the Amphictyonic council, and to repair the fatal effects of sacrilege and profanation. That the magistrates of Thebes foresaw the hostility of Philip, and well knew by whom it had been excited. "They have therefore," said Æschines, "devoted me to destruction, and actually set a price upon my head. The people of Eubœa are equally alarmed by our accommodation with Philip, not doubting that their island will be restored to us, as an equivalent for Amphipolis. Nor are these the only advantages of the treaty: another point of still higher importance, a point of the

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most intimate concern to the public, has been secured. But of this I shall speak at another time, since at present I perceive the envy and malignity of certain persons ready to break forth." The advantage hinted at, with such significant obscurity, was the recovery of Oropus, a considerable city on the Athenian frontier, which had long been subject to Thebes.

The suspicions of Demosthenes ridiculed by his colleagues.

This specious harangue, so flattering to the indolence and vain hopes of the multitude, was received with general approbation, notwithstanding the opposition of Demosthenes, who declared that he knew nothing of all those great advantages promised by his colleague; and that he did not expect them. Æschines and Philocrates heard him with the supercilious contempt of men who possessed a secret with which he was unacquainted. But when he endeavoured to continue his discourse, and to expose their artifice and insincerity, all was clamour, indignation, and insult. Æschines bade him remember, not to claim any share of the rewards due to the important services of his colleagues. Philocrates, with an air of pleasantry, said, it was no wonder that the hopes of Demosthenes were less sanguine than his own, "since he drinks water; I wine." This insipid jest was received with loud bursts of laughter and applause, which prevented the assembly from attending to the spirited remonstrances of Demosthenes. A motion was made, and agreed to, for thanking Philip for his equitable and friendly intentions, as well as for ratifying a perpetual peace and alliance between

Athens

Athens and Macedon. In the same decree, it was determined that the Phocians should submit to the Amphictyonic council, under pain of incurring the displeasure of the republic ⁷⁴.

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These articles, together with the secret motives which produced them, were, by the emissaries of Philip, immediately communicated to the Phocian ambassadors then residing at Athens; who, transported with joy at the prospect of averting the calamities which long threatened their country, lost no time in transmitting the agreeable intelligence to their fellow-citizens. They concluded, with a high degree of probability, that, however Philip might deceive the Phocians, the ministers of Athens could never be so bold as publicly to deceive the Athenians; and that, therefore, they could no longer entertain any reasonable doubt of the favourable disposition of the king of Macedon. This belief was so firmly established, that when Archidamus marched into Phocis at the head of an army in order to defend the temple against Philip, the Phocians rejected his assistance, observing, that they feared for Sparta much more than for themselves; upon which the Lacedæmonians returned into Peloponnesus ⁷⁵.

The success of Philip's artifices with the Athenians deceives the Phocian ambassadors at Athens;

which makes the Phocians reject the assistance of Sparta.

Philip was now prepared for executing his grand enterprise. Halus, long besieged, had submitted to the united arms of Parmenio and his own. Fresh troops had arrived from Macedon. The Athenians were appeased; the Lacedæmonians had

Philip negotiates with Phaulcus the cession of Nicæa.

⁷⁴ Demosthen. de falsa Legatione.

⁷⁵ Ibid.

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retired; the Phocians were imposed on; the Theſſalians, Thebans, and Locrians, were ready to follow his ſtandard. One obſtacle only remained, and that eaſy to be ſurmounted. Phaleucus, who commanded eight thouſand mercenaries, ſtill kept poſſeſſion of Nicæa. But a man who had betrayed the intereſt of his own republic, could not be very obſtinate in defending the cauſe of Greece. Philip entered into a negotiation with him, in order to get poſſeſſion of Nicæa⁷⁶, without which it would have been impoſſible to paſs the Thermopylæ; and while this tranſaction was going forward, wrote repeated letters to the Athenians, full of cordiality and affection.

Philip
continues
to veil his
deſigns in
obſcurity.

He ſuſpected the dangerous capriciouſneſs of a people, whoſe ſecurity might yet be alarmed; and whoſe oppoſition might ſtill prove fatal to his deſigns, ſhould they either march forth to the ſtraits, or command their admiral Proxenus, who was ſtationed in the Opuntian gulph, between Locris and Eubœa, to intercept the Macedonian convoys; for the frontiers both of Phocis and Theſſaly having long lain waſte in conſequence of the ſacred war, Philip received his provisions chiefly by ſea. The reaſonable profeſſions of friendſhip, contained in the letters, not only kept the Athenians from liſtening to the remonſtrances of Demoſthenes, but prevailed on them to depute that orator, together with Æſchines, and ſeveral others, whoſe advice and aſſiſtance Philip affected to deſire in ſettling the arduous buſineſs in which he was engaged. De-

⁷⁶ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 455.

mosthenes saw through the artifice of his enemies, for withdrawing him, at this important crisis, from his duty in the assembly: he therefore absolutely refused the commission. Æschines, on pretence of sickness, staid at home to watch and counteract the measures of his rival. The other ambassadors departed, in compliance with the request of Philip, and the orders of their republic, and in hopes of seeing a treaty fulfilled, which, they had been taught to believe, would be attended with consequences equally advantageous and honourable⁷⁷.

While the ambassadors travelled through Eubœa, in their way to join the king of Macedon, they learned, to their utter astonishment, the wonderful events that had been transacted. Phaleucus had been persuaded to evacuate Nicæa. He retired towards Peloponnesus, and embarked at Corinth, with a view to sail to Italy, where he expected to form an establishment. But the capricious and ungovernable temper of his followers compelled him to make a descent on the coast of Elis. After this they re-embarked, and sailed to Crete, where their invasion proved fatal to their general. Having returned to the Peloponnesus, they were defeated by the Elians and Arcadians. The greater part of those who survived the battle, fell into the hands of the enemy, by whom they were shot with arrows or precipitated from rocks. A feeble remnant escaped to their ships, but perished soon afterwards in an insurrection which

Disasters
of Phaleu-
cus and
his fol-
lowers.

⁷⁷ Demosthen. de falsa Legatione.

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Cruel de-
cree of the
Amphic-
tyons
against
Phocis ;

they had excited, or fomented, in the isle of Sicily. The destruction of this numerous body of men is ascribed by ancient historians⁷⁸ to the divine vengeance which pursued their sacrilege and impiety. It is astonishing that those superstitious writers did not reflect on the swifter and more terrible destruction that overtook the whole Phocian nation, by whom the wickedness of Phaleucus and his followers had been so recently condemned ; and by whom, had not power been wanting, it would have been punished with an exemplary rigour.

Philip having passed the straits of Thermopylæ, was received by the Phocians as their deliverer. He had promised to plead their cause before the Amphictyonic council, to the decisions of which that credulous people consented to submit, well knowing that a prince who entered Greece at the head of a numerous army might easily controul the resolutions of the Amphictyons, and fondly believing that prince to be their friend. The deputies of Athens had not yet arrived ; those of the southern republics had not even been summoned. The Locrians, Thebans, and Thessalians, alone composed the assembly that was to decide the fate of Phocis ; a country which they had persecuted with unrelenting hostility in a war of ten years. The sentence was such as might be expected from the cruel resentment of the judges. It was decreed that the Phocians should be excluded from the general confederacy of Greece, and for ever deprived of the right to send representatives to the

⁷⁸ Diodorus, l. xvi. c. xx. gives this as the general opinion.

council of Amphictyons: that their arms and horses should be sold for the benefit of Apollo; that they should be allowed to keep possession of their lands, but compelled to pay annually from their produce the value of sixty thousand talents, till they had completely indemnified the temple; that their cities should be dismantled, and reduced to distinct villages, containing no more than sixty houses each, at the distance of a furlong from each other; and that the Corinthians, who had recently given them some assistance, should therefore be deprived of the presidency at the Pythian games; which important prerogative, together with the superintendence of the temple of Delphi, as well as the right of suffrage in the Amphictyonic council, lost by the Phocians, should thenceforth be transferred to the king of Macedon. It was decreed that the Amphictyons, having executed these regulations, should next proceed to procure all due repairs and expiations to the temple, and should exert their wisdom and their power to establish, on a solid foundation, the tranquillity and happiness of Greece⁷⁹.

This extraordinary decree, when communicated to the Phocians, filled that miserable people with such terror and dismay, as rendered them totally incapable of acting with vigour or with union. They took not any *common* measures for repelling the invader; a few cities only, more daring than the rest, endeavoured, with unequal strength, to defend their walls, their temples, and the revered

which is
cruelly
executed
by the
Macedo-
nians.
Olymp.
cvi. 2.
A. C. 347.

⁷⁹ Diodor. l. xvi. c. liz. & seqq.

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tombs of their ancestors. Their feeble resistance was soon overcome; all opposition ceased; and the Macedonians proceeded to execute the will of the Amphictyonic council with inflexible cruelty, and with such undisturbed order and silence as seemed more dreadful than the tumultuary ravages of the fiercest war. Without dropping a tear, or heaving a sigh, since the smallest mark of regret was construed into an obstinacy of guilt, the wretched Phocians beheld the destruction of their ancient monuments and trophies, their proud walls levelled with the ground, the fertile banks of the divine Cephissus covered with ruin and desolation, and the venerable cities of Daulis, Penopeus, Lilæa, and Hyampolis, which had flourished above nine centuries in splendour and prosperity, and which will ever flourish in the song of Homer, so totally burned or demolished as scarcely to leave a vestige of their existence⁸⁰. After this terrible havoc of whatever they possessed most valuable and respected, the inhabitants were driven like herds of cattle to the settlements allotted for them, and compelled to cultivate their paternal fields for the benefit of stern and unrelenting masters. At the distance of three years, travellers, who passed through Phocis to visit the temple of Delphi, melted with compassion, or shuddered with horror, at the sight of such piteous and unexampled devastation. They turned their reluctant eyes from the shattered ruins of a country, and a people, once so illustrious; the youth, and men of full age,

⁸⁰ Pausanias in Phocic. & Diodor. l. xvi. c. lix. & seqq.

had either perished in the war, or been dragged into captivity; the populous cities were no more; and the villages were thinly inhabited by women, children, and wretched old men, whose silent but emphatic expressions of deep-rooted misery exceeded all power of words to describe⁸¹.

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The unexpected news of these melancholy events reached Athens in five days. The people were then assembled in the Piræus to examine the state of their harbours and shipping. The dreadful intelligence filled them with consternation. They imagined that they already beheld the destructive armies of Macedon and Thessaly, excited by the inveterate hostility of Thebes, pouring in upon their northern frontier, and overwhelming the whole country with havoc and desolation. A decree immediately passed, at the motion of Callisthenes, which marked the utmost danger and dismay. It was resolved, "that the Athenians, who usually resided in the country, should be summoned to the defence of the city; that those, within the distance of twelve miles round, should, along with their persons, transport their most valuable effects into the city or the Piræus; that those at a greater distance should respectively convey themselves and their property to the nearest fortresses, particularly Eleufis, Phylé, Aphidna, and Sunium, the principal places of strength in the Attic territory⁸²."

The news of these events produce consternation in Athens.

This decree shews, that terror was the first movement of the Athenians; but vengeance was

Philip writes the Athenians

⁸¹ Demosthen. & Æschin. de falsa Legat. & de Coron.

⁸² Demosthen. de falsa Legat. sect. 20.

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in a style
very dif-
ferent
from what
he had
formerly
used.

the second. Reluctantly cooped up within their walls, they called aloud for arms: levies were prepared for the relief of Phocis; and their admiral Proxenus, who had lately returned from the neighbouring coast, was ordered again to direct his course towards that country. The king of Macedon was duly attentive to those transactions, of which he had been regularly informed by his emissaries. He therefore wrote a letter to the Athenians, in that style of superiority which the success of his policy and of his arms, justly entitled him to assume. After acquainting them with his treatment of the Phocians, he mentions his being informed of their preparations for supporting that impious people, who were not included in the treaty of peace recently signed and ratified between Athens and Macedon. He exhorts them to lay aside this unwarrantable design, which could have no other effect than to show the iniquity and extravagance of their conduct, in arming against a prince, with whom they had so lately concluded an alliance. "But if you persist, know that we are prepared for repelling your hostilities with equal firmness and vigour."

The Athe-
nians pass
a decree
for re-
ceiving the
fugitive
Phocians.

This mortifying letter was received at the same time that the Athenian ambassadors returned from Eubœa, and brought such accounts of the destruction of the Phocians, that it appeared scarcely possible to afford them any relief. All that remained was to save, from the unrelenting vengeance of their enemies, the miserable wreck of that unfor-

tunate

fortunate community. The Athenians passed a decree for receiving the fugitives with kindness, and for providing them with settlements in Attica, or in the foreign dependencies of the republic; a resolution which, though it was founded on the most evident duties of gratitude and humanity towards ancient and faithful allies, gave great offence to the inexorable cruelty of the Thessalians and Thebans ⁸³.

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Amidst these transactions the Macedonian partisans, and especially Æschines and Philocrates, whose vain assurances had been attended with such fatal effects, had just cause to dread the resentment of their country. The former, who had been the principal agent in this disgraceful scene of intrigue and delusion, no longer affected sickness; he forgot the threatenings denounced against him by Thebes; he disregarded the Athenian decree, prohibiting any citizen to stir from the walls; and having waited for, and beheld, the destruction of the Phocians with as much indifference, if we may believe his adversary, as he would have seen the conclusion of any ordinary affair, which concerned merely his pecuniary interest, he repaired to Philip to receive the wages of his iniquity. Æschines accounts for his journey at this time by a more honourable, but less probable cause, the desire of saving the feeble and unhappy remnant of the Phocian nation, who were persecuted to extremity by

Philip
protects
the Pho-
cians
against the
inhuman
vengeance
of their
Grecian
foes;

⁸³ Demosthen. & Æschin. de falsa Legat. sect. 20.

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the barbarous vengeance of their Grecian foes, and protected at the intercession of the Athenian orator, by the clemency or compassion of the Macedonians. There is reason to believe that *Æschines*, in order to gain merit with his countrymen, whose resentment he had so highly provoked, opposed an inhuman resolution of precipitating from rocks all those of the *Phocians* who had attained the age of puberty. But the king of Macedon, whose character was not naturally flagitious, or cruel without necessity, must, of his own accord, have been inclined to avert such an atrocious and bloody sentence, which, without promoting his interest, would have for ever ruined his fame.

and the
Bœotians
against the
cruelty of
Thebes.

This conclusion appears the more probable, since, we are assured, that, upon the same principle, but with far less success, he assumed the protection of the oppressed *Bœotians*. *Orchomenus*, *Coronæa*, *Hyampolis*, with other cities of less note in *Bœotia*, were, in consequence of the ruin of their *Phocian* allies, again subjected to the dominion of *Thebes*; a republic, always haughty and unrelenting, who, on this occasion, prepared to treat the rebels with more than her usual insolence and cruelty. Philip espoused the cause of the injured with a generous ardour, extremely disagreeable to the *Thebans*. His humanity, whether real or affected, was loudly extolled by his partisans in most republics of Greece. It redounded, however, more to his own glory, than to the benefit of the afflicted *Bœotians*; who, being expelled from their

own

own country by the intolerable oppression of Theban tyranny, sought refuge in the compassionate bosom of Athens ⁸⁴.

Having finished the sacred war in a manner so favourable to his own interest and ambition, Philip convened the members of the Amphiſtyonic council, to the number of two hundred, and assisted in the hymns, prayers, and sacrifices offered to Apollo, in acknowledgment of his divine protection of their councils and arms. The name of the pious king of Macedon, who had been the principal instrument of their success, resounded in the sacred Pœans sung in honour of the God. The Amphiſtyons ratified all the transactions of that prince, erected his statue in the temple of Delphi, and acknowledged, by a solemn decree, the kingdom of Macedon as the principal member of the Hellenic body ⁸⁵. Philip at the same time appointed deputies to preside at the Pythian games, the celebration of which was nearly approaching, and to which most of the Grecian states had already sent their representatives. The Athenians, stung with indignation and regret, abstained from this festival. An embassy was therefore dispatched to them in the name of the Amphiſtyons, requiring their concurrence with measures recently embraced by the general council of Greece; and remonstrating against their displeasure at the aggrandisement of a prince with whom they had so lately contracted an alliance.

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Macedon
declared
by the
Amphi-
stions a
member of
the Hel-
lenic body.
Olymp.
cvi. 3.
A. C. 346.

⁸⁴ Demosthen. & Æschin. de falsa Legat. sect. 20.

⁸⁵ Diodor. I. xvi. p. 60.

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Even the
Athenians
admit this
pretension.

The deliberations of the Athenian assembly, on this occasion, shewed the full extent of their own folly, and evinced the consummate policy of Philip. They acknowledged, with dejection and anguish, that they had neglected the many opportunities presented them by the favour of heaven, for repressing the ambition of their rival; that the time of acting, with vigour and boldness, was now no more; that the cause of Greece was an empty name, since the Greeks surrendered their dignity to the king of Macedon; and that it became their own republic to consult rather its safety than its honour, and to maintain peace with a monarch against whom they were by no means prepared to wage war. Even Demosthenes⁸⁶ recommended this resolution; lest, says he, we should offend those now assembled, who call themselves the Amphictyons, and thus excite a general war against ourselves. The Thebans, beside ancient causes of quarrel with us, are incensed at our harbouring their exiles; the Locrians and Thessalians resent our protecting the Phocians; the Argives, the Messenians, and Megalopolitans, are displeased at our concurring with the views of Lacedæmon. If we refuse the demands of Philip and the Amphictyons, they may assault us with the combined arms of all those states, which we are totally unable to resist. One point, therefore, is necessary, the continuance of the present peace; not that it is so very excellent, or so worthy of you; but, of what kind soever it may be, it were more for the interest of

⁸⁶ Demosthen. de Pace.

your affairs, that it never had been concluded, than that now, when it is concluded, you should infringe it. This opinion was universally approved: Macedon was acknowledged a member of the Grecian confederacy; and Isocrates, an Athenian of the highest merit and reputation, addressed a discourse to Philip, in which he exhorted him to disdain inglorious victories over his countrymen and friends, to employ his authority to extinguish, for ever, the animosities of Greece, and to direct the united efforts of that country, of which Macedon now formed a part, against the wealth and effeminacy of Persia, its ancient and natural enemy ⁸⁷.

Whether these exhortations proceeded from the virtuous simplicity which did not suspect, or from the insinuating and artful policy which, though it suspected, hoped to prevent, the hostile projects ⁸⁸ of Macedon, the measures of Philip were, doubtless, taken with too much care, and his plans founded too deep and firm, to be shaken by the specious eloquence of a rhetorician. He had long meditated the invasion of Asia; the conquest of the Persian empire was an object that might well tempt his ambition; but neither his own passions, nor the arguments of other men, could hasten, retard, or vary his undeviating progress in a system which could only be completed by consolidating his ancient, before he attempted new conquests.

⁸⁷ Isocrat. Orat. Philipp.

⁸⁸ See the Life of Isocrates, prefixed to my translation of his works.

C H A P. XXXVI.

Foundation of Philippopolis and Cabyla.—Philip's Expedition to Illyria.—Alexander receives the Persian Ambassadors.—Affairs of Greece.—Demosthenes unmasks the Designs of Philip's Expedition to the Peloponnesus—to Epirus—to Thrace.—Diopetibes opposes him with Vigour.—The Athenians recover Eubœa.—Siege of Perinthus.—Philip's Letter to the Athenians.—Expedition of Chares—of Phocion—who retrieves the Athenian Affairs in Thrace.—Philip's Scythian Expedition.—The Incendiary Antipbon.—Philip's Intrigues embroil the Affairs of Greece.—The third Sacred War.—Philip General of the Amphictyons.—Confederacy against that Prince.—He seizes Elatœa.—Battle of Chæronœa.—His Moderation in Victory.—Demosthenes's Oration in Honour of the Slain.

C H A P.
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Philip
evacuates
Greece;
Olymp.
cvi. 4.
A.C. 345.

BY his intrigues Philip had obtained more important advantages, than he could have gained by a long series of victories. The conquest of Greece was his object; he had taken many preliminary measures towards effecting this purpose; while his conduct, so far from exciting the jealousy of those fierce republics, acquired their admiration and gratitude. Instead of rousing the dangerous resentment of a nation whom he was ambitious to subdue,

subdue, Philip disarmed the hostility of Athens, and threatened with the vengeance of combined Greece, the only republic that appeared forward to obstruct his designs. It seemed high time, therefore, to withdraw his army; to set bounds, for the present, to his own triumphs; nor to attempt, with danger, effecting by premature force, what might be safely accomplished by seasonable policy. Before evacuating Greece, he took care to place a strong garrison in Nicæa, which might thenceforth secure his free passage through the straits of Thermopylæ. Macedonian troops occupied the principal cities of Thessaly, and the strongest posts of Phocis. He conducted with him into Macedon eleven thousand Phocian captives; an acquisition which he regarded as not the least valuable fruits of his success; and of which, on his return home, he determined immediately to avail himself.

The warlike tribes of Thrace, though often vanquished, had never been thoroughly subdued. In order to bridle the dangerous fury of those northern barbarians, Philip built two cities, Philippopolis and Cabyla¹, the first at the western extremity of the country, on the confines of mount Rhodopé, the second towards the east, at the foot of mount Hæmus, above an hundred and fifty miles distant from each other, and almost equally remote from the Macedonian capital. The Phocian captives, blended with a due proportion of

found
Philippo-
polis and
Cabyla;

¹ Strabo, l. vii. p. 118.

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plants a
colony in
the isle of
Thafos.

Macedonian subjects, well provided with arms for their defence, were sent to people and cultivate those new settlements, whose flourishing condition soon exceeded the expectation of their founder. At the same time, Philip planted a colony in the isle of Thafos, which had formerly belonged to the Athenians; but that people having already lost possession of the gold mines at Philippi, on the neighbouring coast of Thrace, seemed now so indifferent about the possession of Thafos, that their transports were employed in conveying the Macedonians thither ².

His expedition to
Illyria;
Olymp.
cix. 1.
A. C. 344.

In such occupations, chiefly, Philip employed the first year of the peace, not neglecting to complete the ornaments of his capital; for which purpose he borrowed, as formerly, large sums of money from the richest citizens of Greece. The year following, he made an expedition into Illyria, and, at the expence of that country, extended his dominions from the lake Lychnidus to the Ionian sea. This district, about sixty miles in breadth, was barbarous and uncultivated, but contained valuable salt-mines, which had occasioned a bloody war between two neighbouring tribes. While Philip was absent in Illyria, an embassy arrived from Ochus king of Persia, who, alarmed by the magnificent reports of the growing greatness of Macedon, sent the most trusty of his ministers, who, under pretence of offering to Philip the friendship and alliance of the great king, might examine

² Demost. de Halonefo.

with their own eyes the strength and resources of a monarch, which were represented as so formidable.

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In the absence of his father, the young Alexander did the honours of the court; and it is said, that during an entertainment given to the Persian ambassadors, the prince, who had not yet reached his twelfth year, discovered such manly and premature wisdom, as already announced the dawn of a very extraordinary character³. Among other questions, that could not have been expected from his age, he enquired into the nature of the Persian government and art of war; the genius and disposition of the reigning sovereign; the distance of his capital from the coast, and the difficulty of the intervening roads⁴. Such inquiries, whatever talents they announced in the young prince, seem to prove that the conquest of Persia had been a frequent subject of conversation between Alexander and his instructors; and that an unbounded ambition had already taken possession of his youthful mind. The ambassadors heard him with astonishment, and exclaimed with that freedom which so

during which his son Alexander receives the Persian ambassadors.

³ Plutarch (in Alexand.) expresses himself strongly on this subject: “ὥς ἐκεῖναι (the ambassadors) θαυμάζειν, καὶ τὴν λεγομένην Φιλίππου δεινότητα ὑπὲρ ἡγεῖσθαι πρὸς τὴν τῷ παιδὸς ὄρμην καὶ μεγαλοπραγμοσύνην.”—Read μεγαλοψυχίαν, and then the sentence may be literally explained; “So that the ambassadors wondered, and thought nothing of the famed abilities of Philip, compared with the spirit and magnanimity of his son.” I recollect not having met with μεγαλοπραγμοσύνη in the writers of the Socratic age; but it is a good word to mark the character of a person “who busies himself about great objects.”

⁴ Plutarch in Alexand.

CHAP. wonderfully distinguishes the public transactions of
 XXXVI. ancient, from those of modern times, “ Ours is a rich and powerful, but this will be truly a wife and great king ⁵.”

Philip's
 transac-
 tions in
 Thessaly,
 Eubœa,
 and Me-
 gara.
 Olymp.
 cix. r.
 A. C. 344.

Philip had no sooner returned from Illyria, than he made an excursion to Thessaly, and finally settled the affairs of that distracted country; having taken on himself the whole management of the revenue, and having divided the territory into four separate governments, in order to weaken the force of opposition, and to render the whole province more patient and submissive under the dominion of Macedon ⁶. While Philip was thus employed in Thessaly, his agents were not less active in confirming the Macedonian authority in the isle of Eubœa. Nor was he satisfied with securing his former acquisitions; he aspired at new conquests. The barren and rocky territory of Megara, divided, by an extent of only ten miles, the frontier of Bœotia from the isthmus of Corinth. The industrious and frugal simplicity of this little republic could not defend its virtue against the corrupt influence of the Macedonian ⁷. Philip gained a party in Megara, which he cultivated with peculiar care; because, being already master of

⁵ I have used a little freedom with the words of Plutarch, *ὡς ὁ παῖς ἔτα; ἑαυτοῦ μεγας· ὁ δὲ ἡμετέρος πλεσιος*. Plut. Orat. ii. de Fortun. Alexand.

⁶ Demosth. Philipp. iii.

⁷ Demosthen. de falsa Legatione, & Philipp. iii. In Philipp. iv. he speaks as if Philip had made some open attempt against Megara, in which he had failed: *ταυτης* (scil. *Ευβοιας*) *ολιγωερ-μους, Μεγαρα ἱαλω παραμικρον*, p. 54.

Bœotia, Phocis, and Theffaly, the narrow territory of the Megarians formed the chief obstacle to his free passage into the Peloponnesus, the affairs of which, at this juncture, particularly deserved his attention.

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The Lacedæmonians, repulsed by Philip, whom they had condescended to solicit, rejected by the Phocians, whom they offered to assist, and having lost all hopes of obtaining the guardianship of the Delphic temple, totally deserted a scene of action, in which they could expect neither profit nor honour, and confined their politics and their arms within the narrow circle of their own peninsula. For almost two years, Archidamus had laboured with undivided attention, and with his usual address and activity, to extend the pretensions and the power of Sparta over the territories of Messenê, Argos, and Arcadia. His measures, planned with prudence, and conducted with vigour, were attended with success, though the inhabitants of the dependent provinces bore with much regret and indignation the yoke of a republic, which they had formerly spurned as oppressive and intolerable. Their murmurs and discontents were inflamed into hostility by the Thebans, the eternal enemies of Sparta, and, at that time, closely allied with the king of Macedon. To this monarch the Thebans applied, requesting him not to permit the destruction of their confederates in the Peloponnesus. The intrigues and money of Philip had already gained him a considerable influence in that coun-

Philip prepares to protect the inferior communities of the Peloponnesus against the oppressions of Sparta.

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try, which he was glad of an opportunity to increase. To justify his proceedings for this purpose, he procured a decree of the Amphictyonic council, requiring him to check the insolence of Sparta, and to protect the defenceless communities which had so often been the victims of her tyranny and cruelty. Encouraged by this resolution of the Amphictyons, and impelled by his own ambition, Philip sent troops and money into the Peloponnesus, and prepared to march thither in person, at the head of a powerful army ⁸.

The Corinthians prepare to interrupt his march.

These transactions excited new commotions and alarms throughout most countries of Greece. The Corinthians ⁹, jealous of the power of a prince, who, at the close of the Phocian war, deprived them of their ancient prerogatives and honours, and who, still more recently, had taken possession of Leucas, a city in Acarnania, and of Ambracia in Epirus, both colonies of Corinth, determined to oppose his passage into the Peloponnesus. Weapons and defensive armour were provided, the walls and fortifications were repaired, mercenary troops were levied, the citizens exercised in arms, the whole republic glowed with the ardour of military preparation; insomuch that Diogenes the Cynic, who lost no opportunity to deride the follies of his contemporaries, beholding with just contempt the hurry and vain bustle of the effeminate Corinthians, that seemed so ill calculated to contend with the active vigour of Philip, began to

⁸ Demosth. de Pace.

⁹ Lucian de Conscribend. Histor.
roll

roll about his tub ¹⁰, lest he should be the only person unemployed in so busy a city.

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Negocia-
tions in
Athens.

The Lacedæmonians, meanwhile, not less alarmed, but always better prepared for war, solicited the assistance of Athens. The latter state had received a considerable accession of strength, as well as of just honour and respect, from its hospitable reception of the distressed exiles from Phocis and Bœotia. It derived new consideration and lustre from the general congress of ambassadors from Sparta, Thebes, Macedon, Argos, Messenê, and Arcadia, who, after a long interval of time, again condescended to assert their respective claims before the Athenian assembly. The Lacedæmonians represented the league, formed against themselves, as alike dangerous to Athens and to Sparta; that the ambition of Philip would not rest satisfied with a partial conquest; his imagination already grasped the dominion of Greece; and now was the only time for the two leading republics, who had ever mutually assisted each other in seasons of calamity, to make a firm stand, and to exert their utmost vigour in defence of their own and the public safety, so shamefully abandoned by the Thebans, and by the mob of Peloponnesus ¹¹. The Thebans joined with the ministers of Philip in calling on the Athenians to adhere strictly to

¹⁰ Aust. apud Brucker. in Vit. Diogen. That learned writer has collected all that is written for and against the tub of Diogenes. Were authors less explicit, the moveable habitation of this philosopher would be sufficiently attested by ancient monuments. See Winckelmann, d'Hancarville, &c.

¹¹ Ὀχλος Πελοποννησῶν. Isocrat. in Archidam.

their

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their treaty of peace recently concluded with that prince; they endeavoured, by art and sophistry, to varnish or to palliate such deeds of fraud or violence as could not be altogether denied; and laboured with the utmost assiduity to separate the views and interests of Athens and Lacedæmon on this important emergency. The ambassadors of the inferior states of Peloponnesus loudly complained, that the Athenians, who affected to be the patrons of liberty, should favour the views of Sparta, which had so long been the scourge of Greece. They represented this conduct as not only unjust and cruel, but contradictory and absurd; and used many plausible arguments to deter the people of Athens, who still strenuously asserted the freedom of Bœotia, from taking such a part in the present quarrel as might tend to rivet the chains of Peloponnesus.

Artful representations of the Macedonian partisans in Athens.

The Athenian orators, many of them creatures of Philip, exhorted their countrymen not to break too hastily with a prince with whom they had so recently concluded an alliance, nor imprudently renew a bloody and destructive war, out of which they had been lately extricated with so much difficulty. They observed, that although the measures of Philip, since the conclusion of the peace, had indeed been more agreeable to the Thebans than to the Athenians, he had considered himself as bound in justice to chastise the sacrilege of the Phocians. Nor was he altogether at liberty to follow his own inclinations; surrounded by the Thessalian cavalry and the Theban infantry, he

was

was compelled to treat the enemies of those states with a severity which his own feelings disapproved. But the time was arrived when he might act with more independence and dignity; and that, could any credit be given to report, he was already preparing to rebuild the ruined cities of Phocis, and to fortify Elatæa, on the frontier of that territory, by which means he might thenceforth restrain and bridle the insolent cruelty of Thebes. These observations, however improbable, received great force from the peaceful, or rather indolent disposition of the people, who, though they heard with pleasure those who magnified their ancient grandeur, and inveighed against the injustice and ambition of Philip, were averse to employ either their money, or their personal service, in such active measures as could alone set bounds to the Macedonian encroachments.

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Demosthenes, last, arose, and pronounced a discourse, which the king of Macedon is said to have read with a mixture of terror and admiration¹². “When you hear described, men of Athens! the continual hostilities by which Philip violates the peace, I observe that you approve the equity and patriotism of those who support the rights of the republic: but while nothing is done, on account of which it is worth while to listen to such speeches, our affairs are brought to such a pass, that the more clearly we convict Philip of perfidy towards you, and of hostile designs against

Answered
by De-
mosthenes.

¹² Plut. in Vit. Demosth. in lib. de Dec. Orator.

CHAP. Greece, the more difficult it is to propose any
 XXXVI. reasonable advice. The cause of this difficulty is,
 that the encroachments of ambition must be repelled, not by words, but by deeds. If speeches and reasonings sufficed, we should long ere now have prevailed over our adversary. But Philip excels in actions as much as we do in arguments; and both of us obtain the superiority in what forms respectively the chief object of our study and concern; we in our assemblies, Philip in the field.

He explains the measures, and points out the dangerous designs, of Philip.

“ Immediately after the peace, the king of Macedon became master of Phocis and Thermopylæ, and made such an use of these acquisitions as suited the interest of *Thebes*, not of *Athens*. Upon what principle did he act thus? Because, governed in all his proceedings, not by the love of peace or justice, but by an insatiable lust of power, he saw the impossibility of bending the Athenians to his selfish and tyrannical purposes. He knew that the loftiness of their character would never stoop to private considerations, but prefer to any advantage that he might offer them, the dictates of justice and of honour; and that neither their penetration, nor their dignity, could ever be prevailed on to sacrifice to a partial and temporary interest, the general safety of Greece; but that they would fight for each member of the confederacy with the same ardour as for their own walls. The Thebans he judged (and he judged aright) to be more assailable; he knew their folly and their meanness to be such, that provided he heaped benefits on themselves, they would assist him to enslave their
 neigh-

neighbours. Upon the same principle he now cultivates, in preference to yours, the friendship of the Messenians and Argives; a circumstance, Athenians! which highly redounds to your honour, since Philip thus declares his persuasion, that you alone have wisdom to understand, and virtue to oppose, his designs; that you foresee the drift of all his negotiations and wars, and are determined to be the incorruptible defenders of the common cause. Nor is it without good grounds that he entertains such an honourable opinion of you, and the contrary of the Thebans and Argives. When the liberties of Greece were threatened by Persia, as they now are by Macedon, the Thebans basely followed the standard of the invaders; the Argives did not oppose their arms; while the magnanimous patriots, from whom you are descended, spurned offers, highly advantageous, made them by Alexander of Macedon, the ancestor of Philip, who acted as the ambassador of Persia; and, preferring the public interest to their own, provoked the devastation of their territory, and the destruction of their capital, and performed, in defence of Greece, those unrivalled exploits of heroism which can never be celebrated with due praise. For such reasons, Philip chooses for his allies, Thebes, Argos, and Messenê, rather than Athens and Sparta. The former states possess not greater strength, wealth, fleets, harbours, and armies; they have not more *power*, but less *virtue*. Nor can Philip plead the merits of their cause; since, if Chæronæa and Orchomenus are justly subject to Thebes, Argos and Messenê are justly subject to Lacedæmon;

mon; nor could it be equitable to enslave the inferior cities of Bœotia, and at the same time to teach those of Peloponnesus to rebel.

“ But Philip was compelled to this conduct (for this is the only remaining argument that can be alleged in his defence). ‘ Surrounded by the Thessalian cavalry and Theban infantry, he was obliged to assist allies whom he distrusted, and to concur with measures which he disapproved. Hence the severe treatment of Phocis, hence the cruel servitude of Orchomenus and Chæronæa. The king of Macedon, being now at liberty to consult the dictates of his own humanity and justice, is desirous to re-establish the republic of Phocis; and, in order to bridle the insolence of Thebes, actually meditates the fortifying of Elatæa.’ This, indeed, he meditates, and will meditate long. But he does not *meditate* the destruction of Lacedæmon. For this purpose he has remitted money, he has sent his mercenaries, he is prepared, himself, to march at the head of a powerful army. His present transactions sufficiently explain the motives of his past conduct. It is evident that he acts from system, and that his principal batteries are erected against Athens itself. How can it be otherwise? He is ambitious to rule Greece; you alone are capable to thwart his measures. He has long treated you unworthily; and he is conscious of his injustice. He is actually contriving your destruction, and he is sensible that you see through his designs. For all these reasons he knows that you detest him, and that should he not anticipate your hostility, he must fall a victim to your
just

just vengeance. Hence he is ever active and alert, watching a favourable moment of assault, and practising on the stupidity and selfishness of the Thebans and Peloponnesians; for if they were not stupid and blind, they might perceive the fatal aim of the Macedonian policy. I once spoke ¹³ on this subject before the Messenians and Argives; my discourse, which was useless to them, may, perhaps, not unseasonably be repeated to you. “Men of Argos and Messenê! you remember the time when Philip caressed the Olynthians, as he now does you: how highly, do you think, that infatuated people would have been offended, had any man talked against the benefactor, who had generously bestowed on them Anthemus and Potidæa? Had any man warned them against the dangerous artifices of Philip, would they have listened to his advice? Yet, after enjoying for a moment the territories of their neighbours, they were for ever despoiled of their own. Inglorious was their fall; not conquered only, but betrayed and sold by one another. Turn your eyes to the Thessalians. When Philip expelled their tyrants, could the Thessalians ever conjecture that the same prince would subject them to the creatures of Macedon, still more tyrannical and oppressive? When he restored them to their seat and suffrage in the Amphictyonic council, could they have been persuaded that he would one day deprive them of the management of their own revenues? As to you, Messenians and Argives! you have beheld Philip

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¹³ During his embassy to Peloponnesus, mentioned above.
smiling

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smiling and deceiving; but beware! pray to Heaven, that you may never behold him insulting, threatening, and destroying. Various are the contrivances which communities have discovered for their defence; walls, ramparts, battlements, all of which are raised by the labour of man, and supported by continual expence and toil. But there is one common bulwark, which only the prudent employ, though alike useful to all, especially to free cities against tyrants. What is that? Distrust. Of this be mindful; to this adhere; preserve this carefully, and no calamity can befall you ¹⁴.”

Impeachment of
Athenians
and Philo-
crates.

Demosthenes then read to the assembly the schedule of an answer, which he advised to be given to the ambassadors, and which was entirely favourable to the Lacedæmonians. At the same time he exhorted his countrymen to deliberate with firmness, yet with temper, on the means by which they might resist the common enemy; “an enemy with whom he had exhorted them to maintain peace, as long as *that* seemed possible; but peace was no longer in their power; Philip gradually carried on a vast system of hostile ambition, dismembering their possessions, debauching their allies, paring their dominions all around, that he might at length attack the centre, unguarded and defenceless.” Had the orator stopped here, his advice might have been followed with some useful consequences. But in declaiming against the encroachments of Macedon, his resentment was na-

¹⁴ Demosthen. Orat. ii. in Philipp.

turally inflamed against Philocrates, Æschines, and their associates, whose perfidious intrigues and machinations had produced the public danger and disgrace. He strongly recommended to the injured people to impeach, condemn, and consign to due punishment those detestable traitors. This counsel was not given in vain to the litigious Athenians, who were better pleased to attend the courts of justice at home, than to march into the Peloponnesus. The city resounded with the noise of trials and accusations. Philocrates was banished¹⁵, and Æschines nearly escaped the same fate, by exposing the profligate life of his accuser Timarchus¹⁶.

Philip, meanwhile, unopposed and unobserved by his enemies, was sailing with a powerful armament towards Cape Tenarus, the most southern promontory of Laconia. Having landed there without opposition, he was joined by the Messenians, Arcadians, and Argives. The united army, after ravaging the most valuable part of the Lacedæmonian territories, besieged and took Trinasus, a maritime city of considerable strength and importance. The terror occasioned among the Spartans by these misfortunes, was heightened by extraordinary meteors in the air, whose unusual redness seemed to presage some dreadful calamity¹⁷. The alarm was so general, that it has been thought worth while to record the saying of a Spartan youth, who remained unmoved amidst the public

Philip settles the affairs of the Peloponnesus.

¹⁵ Æschin. in Ctesiphon.

¹⁶ Argum. in Æschin. Orat. in Timarch.

¹⁷ Plin. Hist. Nat. l. ii. c. xxxvi.

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consternation. Being asked, "Whether he was not afraid of Philip?" "Why," replied the generous youth, "should I fear him? he cannot hinder me from dying for my country¹⁸." But this manly resolution no longer animated the great body of the Spartan nation. Unable to meet the invader in the field, they sent Agis, the son of king Archidamus, to propose terms of accommodation, or rather to submit their whole fortune to the disposal of the Macedonians. The young prince coming alone and unattended, Philip expressed his surprise. "What, have the Spartans sent but one!" "Am I not sent to one?" was the manly reply of Agis¹⁹. This was the expiring voice of Spartan pride; for the king of Macedon, though unwilling to provoke the despair of a people, whose degenerate virtue might yet be animated by the institutions of Lycurgus and the example of Leonidas, compelled them to resign their pretended authority over Argos, Messen^é, and Arcadia; and settled the boundaries of those republics in a manner highly agreeable to the wishes of his confederates. Before leaving the Peloponnesus, he solemnly renewed his engagements to protect them; and, in return, only required, on their part, that the magistracy in Argos should be entrusted to Myrtis, Teledamus, and Mnasia; in Arcadia, to Cercidas, Hieronymus, and Eucampidas; in Messen^é, to Neon and Thrasyllochus, the sons of Iphiades; men whose names would merit eternal oblivion, if Demof-

¹⁸ Frontin. l. iv. c. v.

¹⁹ Plut. Apophth.

thenes justly branded them as traitors²⁰; but a more impartial, and not less judicious writer²¹, asserts, that by early espousing the interest of Philip, they acquired many important advantages for their respective communities; that their sagacity having foreseen the final prevalence of the Macedonian power and policy over the weakness and folly of Greece, they acted wisely in courting the rising fortune of a prince, who was, at length, enabled to take complete vengeance on his enemies; a vengeance which the Peloponnesians escaped by their own prudence and foresight, and from which the Athenians, after long provoking it, were finally delivered by the love of glory and magnanimity, which regulated the conduct, and adorned the victory, of Philip.

Having settled the affairs of Peloponnesus, the king of Macedon marched through that country amidst the acclamations of the people, who vied with each other in bestowing crowns and statues, the usual marks of public gratitude and admiration, on a prince who had generously rescued them from the cruel yoke of Sparta. At Corinth he passed some days in the house of Demaratus, a man totally devoted to his service; and assisted at the games and spectacles, which were celebrated in that city, by an immense concourse of people from the neighbouring republics. The turbulent

Philippub-
licly in-
sulted at
Corinth;

²⁰ Παρα γὰρ τοῖς Ἕλλησιν, ὅ τιτι, ἀλλὰ πᾶσιν ὁμοίως, φροῖν προδοτῶν καὶ δωροδοκῶν καὶ θεοῖς ἐχθρῶν ἀνθρώπων, συνέβη γενεσθαι, ὅσην ἔδειξ πω πρότερον μεμνηταὶ γεγονυῖαν. These traitors are named in Philipp. iii. & in Orat. de Corona.

²¹ Polyb. iii. 72.

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XXXVI.his mode-
ration.Philip ex-
tends the
boundaries
of Epirus,
and seizes
the Halon-
nesus.
Olymp.
cix. 1.
A.C. 344.

Corinthians, who, besides their innate hatred of kings, had particular causes of animosity against Philip, did not conceal their sentiments; and their inhospitable insolence was abetted by many Peloponnesians, who profited of the liberty of the place, and of the occasion, to testify their rooted aversion to the king of Macedon, and their unwillingness to owe their freedom and their safety to the interposition of a foreign tyrant. Philip was strongly urged by his courtiers to punish their ingratitude; but he knew how to digest an affront²², when forgiveness was more useful than vengeance; and repressed the unseasonable indignation of his attendants by observing, with admirable patience, “ Were I to act with *severity*, what must I expect from men, who repay even *kindness* with insult²³ ? ”

Philip proceeded from Corinth by the nearest route into Macedon, where he continued the remainder of that year, directing the improvements that were carrying on in his kingdom, and inspecting with particular care the education of his son Alexander, whose capacious and fervid mind, like a rich and luxuriant soil, producing promiscuously flowers and weeds, strongly required the hand of early culture²⁴. But these useful occupations did not divert his attention from the politics of neighbouring states. He extended the boundaries of Epirus, then governed by his brother-

²² Longinus has preserved the expression of Theopompus, “ that Philip could easily swallow affronts.”

²³ Plut. in Alexand.

²⁴ Plut. *ibid.*

in-law Alexander, the most faithful and devoted of his vassals, by adding to that little principality the province of Cassiopœa, which was chiefly inhabited by Elian colonies. At the same time he exercised his fleet by wresting Halonnesus, an island near the coast of Thessaly, from the hands of corsairs, and kept possession of his conquest, without paying any regard to the claim of the Athenians, the ancient and lawful proprietors of the island ²⁵.

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Next year Philip was summoned into Upper Thrace by a rebellion of the petty princes in that country, fomented by Amadocus king of the Odrysians. The warlike tribes of that great nation, acting with little concert or union, were successively subdued; and the dexterity of the king of Macedon seconding his usual good fortune, he soon ranked the most obstinate of his enemies in the number of his vassals or courtiers ²⁶. At his return from the inhospitable wilds of Thrace, he received into his protection the city and republic of Cardia, occupying the neck of land which joins the Thracian Chersonesus to the continent. The rest of the peninsula had long been subject to the Athenians, whose authority the citizens of Cardia always set at defiance. The Athenians had lately strengthened the Chersonesites by a new colony, which had continual disputes with the Cardians about the extent of their boundaries. Matters had actually come to a crisis, and the Cardians were ready to be overwhelmed by the strength and

Settles the
commo-
tions in
Thrace,
and pro-
tects the
Cardians.
Olymp.
cix. 2.
A. C. 343.

²⁵ Demosth. Orat. de Halon.

²⁶ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 464.

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These
measures
rouse the
Athenians
from their
lethargy.

numbers of the enemy, when they were seasonably defended by the Macedonian arms ²⁷.

The seizing of Halonnesus, the conquering of Grecian colonies for the tyrant of Epirus, above all, the open assistance given to their inveterate enemies, the Cardians, once more roused the Athenians from their lethargy. These fresh insults brought back to their recollection the ancient grounds of animosity, and the manifold injuries which they had suffered since the conclusion of the peace with Macedon. But instead of opposing Philip with arms, the only means by which he might yet be resisted with any hope of success, they employed the impotent defence of speeches, resolutions, and embassies. Their complaints were loud and violent in every country of Greece. They called the attention of the whole confederacy to the formidable encroachments of a Barbarian, to which there seemed no end; and exhorted the Greeks to unite in repressing his insolent usurpation ²⁸.

Philip dis-
patches
Python of
Byzan-
tium with
a letter to
that peo-
ple.

Philip, who then agitated schemes from which he wished not to be diverted by a war with the Athenians, sent proper agents throughout Greece, to counteract the inflammatory remonstrances of that people; and dispatched to Athens itself, Python of Byzantium, a man of a daring and vigorous mind; but who concealed, under that passionate vehemence of language which seems to arise

²⁷ Demosthen. Orât. de Halon. p. 34. & Plut. in Vit. Eumen.

²⁸ Demosthen. de Chersoneso, p. 35, & seqq.

from conviction and sincerity, a mercenary spirit, and a perfidious heart. Python had long ago sold himself, and, as far as depended on himself, the interest of his country, to the king of Macedon, from whom he now conveyed a letter to the senate and people of Athens, written with that specious moderation and artful plausibility, which Philip knew so well to assume in all his transactions. “He offered to make a present to the Athenians of the island of Halonnesus, and invited them to join with him in purging the sea of pirates: he intreated them to refer to impartial arbitrators all the differences that had long subsisted between the two nations, and to concert amicably together such commercial regulations as would tend greatly to the advantage of both. He denied that they could produce any proof of that duplicity on his part, of which they so loudly complained. That for himself, he was ready not only to terminate all disputes with them by a fair arbitration, but to compel the Cardians to abide by the award; and he concluded, by exhorting them to distrust those designing and turbulent demagogues, whose selfish ambition longed to embroil the two countries, and involve them in the horrors of war²⁹.”

Its contents.

The subtle artifices of Philip, though supported on this occasion by the impetuous eloquence of Python, were overcome by Hegesippus and Demosthenes, who refuted the various articles of the letter with great strength and perspicuity, and unveiled the injustice of Philip with such force of

Diopeithes, the Athenian general in Thrace, acts rigorously against Philip.

²⁹ Demosthen. seu Hegesipp. de Halon. p. 33, & seq.

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evidence, that the Athenians resolved upon sending a considerable armament to the Chersonesus, to protect their subjects in that peninsula³⁰. Diopeithes, who commanded the expedition, was a determined enemy to the Macedonians, and a man of courage and enterprize. Before he arrived in the Chersonesus, Philip, trusting to the effect of his letter and intrigues, had returned into Upper Thrace. Diopeithes availed himself of this opportunity to act with vigour. Having provided for the defence of the Athenian settlements in Thrace, he made an incursion into the neighbouring country; stormed the Macedonian settlements at Crobylé and Tiristasis; and having carried off many prisoners, and a considerable booty, lodged them in the safe retreat of the Chersonesus. On this emergency, Amphilochus, a Macedonian of rank, was sent as ambassador, to treat of the ransom of prisoners; but Diopeithes, regardless of this character, ever held sacred in Greece, cast him in prison, the more surely to widen the breach between Athens and Macedon; and, if possible, to render it irreparable. With equal severity he treated a herald, whom he had taken in his late excursion, charged with letters from Philip; which were sent to Athens, and read in full assembly³¹.

The partisans of Philip cabal to ruin Diopeithes.

The king of Macedon, when informed of these hostilities and insults, gave free scope to his complaints and threats; and his emissaries had an

³⁰ Demosthen. seu Hegesipp. de Halon. p. 33, & seq.

³¹ Epistol. Philipp. & Liban. Argum. in Demosthen. Orat. de Chersoneso.

easier game at Athens, as Diopeithes had not only violated the peace with Macedon, but, in order to maintain his troops, which were very sparingly supplied by the republic, levied considerable contributions from the Greek settlements in Asia. The partisans of Macedon inveighed against this commander as a robber and pirate, the common enemy of Greeks and Barbarians; Philip's letters demanded vengeance from the justice of Athens, if not, he would be his own avenger; the personal enemies of Diopeithes joined in the outcry, and insisted, that such a daring offender ought immediately to be recalled, and punished for his misconduct ³².

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On this occasion Demosthenes undertook to defend the accused general, whose measures he warmly approved; and motives of private friendship heightening the ardour of patriotism, render his discourse on the affairs of the Chersonesus one of the most animated and interesting of his productions. The impeachment of Diopeithes he ascribes entirely to malice or perfidy, which had been too successfully employed to withdraw the attention of the Athenians from the main object of their concern, the continual encroachments of Philip, to unjust complaints and calumnies against their fellow-citizens. Diopeithes, if really criminal, might be recalled, and punished whenever they thought proper. A simple mandate from the republic could, at any time, reduce *him* to his duty. But

He is
powerfully
defended
by Demos-
thenes.

³² Demosthen. Orat. de Chersoneso.

Philip,

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Philip, the public enemy, who was continually infringing the peace, who, before the expedition of Diopeithes, had oppressed the Chersonesites, had stormed Serrium and Doriscus, how was Philip to be restrained, unless they repelled force by force? Instead of recalling their troops from the Chersonesus on the remonstrance of a crafty tyrant, who would not acknowledge himself at war with them, till he assaulted the walls of Athens, they ought to exert their utmost ability in augmenting the army in that quarter. Should their forces be withdrawn, Philip would wait the approach of winter, or the setting in of the Etesian winds, to fall on the Chersonesus. Will it then be sufficient to accuse Diopeithes? Or will this save our allies? "O, but we will fail to their relief." But if the winds will not permit you? Even should our enemy attack, not the Chersonesus, but Megara or Chalcis, as he lately did Oreum, would it not be better to oppose him in Thrace, than to carry the war to the frontiers of Attica? The exactions demanded by Diopeithes from the Asiatic Greeks are justified by the example of all his predecessors, who, according to the strength of their respective armaments, have always levied proportional contributions from the colonies; and the people who grant this money, whether more or less, do not give it for nothing. It is the price for which they are furnished with convoys to protect their trading vessels from rapine and piracy. If Diopeithes had not that resource, how could he subsist his troops, he who receives nothing from you, and who has
nothing

nothing of his own? From the skies? No; but from what he can collect, and beg, and borrow. Who does not perceive that this pretended concern for the colonies, in men who have no concern for their country, is one of the many artifices employed to confine and fix you to the city, while the enemy keeps the field, and manages the war at pleasure? That such traitors should exist, is less surprising than that you should patiently receive from them such counsels, as Philip himself would dictate. For what else could the king of Macedon, who understands his own interest so well, advise, but that you should remain quietly at home, decline personal service in the war, deny pay to your soldiers, revile and insult your general? When a man, hired to betray you, rises up in the assembly, and declares Chares or Diopceithes to be the cause of your calamities, such an hypocrite is heard with satisfaction. You despise the voice of him, who, animated by a sincere love for his country, calls out, "Be not deceived, Athenians! Philip is the real cause of all your misfortunes and disgrace." The disagreeable truth renders the man who declares it odious; for the insidious discipline of certain ministers has so changed your principles and characters, that you are become fierce and formidable in your courts of justice, but tame and contemptible in the field. You rejoice, therefore, to hear your distresses charged on those whom you can punish at home; but are unwilling to believe that it proceeds from a public enemy, whom you must oppose with arms in your hands. Yet,

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Athenians, if the states of Greece should thus call you to account for your conduct: "Men of Athens, you are continually sending embassies to assure us, that Philip is projecting *our* ruin, and *that* of all the Greeks. But O, most wretched of mankind! when this common foe was detained six months abroad by sickness, the severity of winter, and the armies of his enemies, did you profit by that opportunity to recover your lost possessions? Did you restore even Eubœa to liberty, and expel those troops and tyrants who had been placed there in ambush, and directly opposite to Attica? No. You have remained insensible to your wrongs, and fully convinced us, that were Philip ten times to die, it would not inspire you with the least degree of vigour. Why then these embassies, these accusations, all this unnecessary ferment! If the Greeks should ask this, what could we answer? I know not,

"There are men who think to perplex a well-intentioned speaker by asking, What ought we to do? My answer is sincere, None of those things which you do at present. I explain my opinion at greater length, and may you be as ready to receive, as to ask, advice! First of all, you must hold it as a matter of firm belief, that Philip has broken the peace, and is at war with your republic: that he is an enemy to your city, to the ground on which it stands, to all those who inhabit it, and not least to such as are most distinguished by his favours.

The

The fate of Euthycrates and Lasthenes ³³, citizens of Olynthus, may teach *our* traitors the destruction that awaits them, after they have surrendered their country. But, though an enemy to your city, your soil, and your people, Philip is chiefly hostile to your government, which, though ill fitted to acquire, or to maintain, dominion over others, is admirably adapted to defend both yourselves and them, to repel usurpation, and to humble tyrants. To your democracy, therefore, Philip is an unrelenting foe, a truth, of which you ought to be deeply persuaded; and next, that wherever you repress his encroachments, you act for the safety of Athens, against which, chiefly, all his batteries are erected. For who can be so foolish as to believe, that the cottages of Thrace (Drongila, Cabyla, and Mastira), should form an object worthy of his ambition; that, in order to acquire them, he should submit to toils and dangers; that, for the sake of the rye and millet of Thrace, he should consent to spend so many months amidst winter snows and tempests; while, at the same time, he disregarded the riches and splendour of Athens, your harbours, arsenals, gallies, mines, and revenues? No, Athenians. It is to get possession of Athens, that he makes war in Thrace and elsewhere. What then ought we to do? Tear ourselves from our indolence; not only support, but augment, the troops which are on foot; that, as

³³ See above, c. xxxv.

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Demosthenes ventures not to propose the war in form.

Philip has an army ever ready to attack and conquer the Greeks, you also may be ready to succour and to save them³⁴."

It is worthy of observation (because nothing betrays more evidently the tyrannical spirit of democracy), that Demosthenes does not propose the war in form, by bringing in a written bill or decree, to be approved or rejected by the votes of his countrymen. This decree must have been recorded among the Athenian archives; and, if the war should prove unfortunate, might be produced at some future time for the destruction of its author, whose enemies would not fail to allege this instrument as a proof that he had occasioned the rupture with Philip, and all the calamities consequent on that measure. The party accused would, in that case, vainly endeavour to shelter himself under the votes of the assembly, since an ordinary court of justice could call him to account for misleading the people³⁵, and punish him with banishment or death. Demosthenes artfully glances at this disagreeable subject: "Rash, impudent, and audacious, I neither am, Athenians, nor wish ever to become; yet possess more true fortitude than the boldest of your demagogues, who, capriciously distributing honours and largesses on the one hand, and as capriciously impeaching, condemning, and confiscating on the other, have, in either case, a sure pledge of impunity in the flat-

³⁴ Demosthen. Orat. de Chersones. p. 35, & seqq.

³⁵ By the *γενον πατριων*. Vide Demosth. de Coron. passim.

tery and artifices by which they have long seduced the public. The courage of that minister is put to an easy trial, who is ever ready to sacrifice your permanent interest to your present pleasure. But he is truly courageous, who, for the sake of your safety and glory, opposes your most favourite inclinations, rouses you from your dream of pleasure, disdains to flatter you, and having the good of his country ever in view, assumes that post in the administration in which fortune often prevails over policy, knowing himself responsible for the issue. Such a minister am I, whose unpopular counsels tend to render, not myself, but my country great."

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The arguments and remonstrances of Demosthenes not only saved Diopceithes, but animated the Athenians with a degree of vigour³⁶ which they had been long unaccustomed to exert. A fleet was fitted out under the command of Callias, who seized all Macedonian ships as lawful prize, and made a descent on the coast of Thessaly, after plundering the harbours in the Pelasgic gulph. A considerable body of forces was sent into Acarnania to repel the incursions of Philip, assisted by his kinsman and ally, Alexander of Epirus. The inhabitants of the island of Peperathus, trusting to the protection of Athens, expelled the Macedonian garrison from Halonnesus. Repeated embassies were dispatched to the Peloponnesians and Eubœans, exhorting them to throw off the ignominious yoke of Macedon, and to unite

The Athenians oppose the common enemy with spirit by sea and land.

³⁶ Vid, Epist. Philip.

with

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with their Grecian brethren against the public enemy. Philip was not unattentive to these commotions, but his designs against the valuable cities on the Propontis and Thracian Bosphorus³⁷ being ripe for execution, he was unwilling to allow any secondary consideration to divert him from that important enterprise.

Philip attempts to get possession of Byzantium and Perinthus. Olymp. cix. 3. A. C. 342.

His intrigues and bribery had gained a considerable party in Byzantium, at the head of which was the perfidious Python, whose vehement eloquence gave him great influence with the multitude. A conspiracy was formed to surrender one of the gates of the city; the Macedonian army of thirty thousand men hovered round; but the design was suspected or discovered, and Philip, to screen his partisans from public vengeance, seasonably withdrew his army, and invested the neighbouring city of Perinthus. The news of these transactions not only increased the activity of Athens, but alarmed Ochus king of Persia, who being no stranger to Philip's design of invading his dominions, trembled at beholding that ambitious prince gradually approach his frontier. To prevent this danger Ochus adopted the same policy, which, in similar circumstances, had been successfully employed by his predecessors³⁸. The Persian gold was profusely scattered among the most eminent of the Grecian demagogues. Demosthenes, whose patriotism was not always proof

³⁷ Demosth. de Coron. & Diodor. l. xvi. c. xxii.

³⁸ Plut. in Alexand.

against an unworthy alliance ³⁹ with interest, rejoiced at being paid for doing what he considered as his duty. At Athens his invectives were louder than ever against the king Macedon; and the affairs of Eubœa gave him an opportunity of exerting himself with equal zeal in that island.

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The factious spirit of the Eubœans rendered them alike incapable of independence, and of remaining quietly under the government either of Athens or Macedon, to which they were alternately subject. The recent prevalence of the Macedonian party had been marked by many acts of violence and oppression. The cities of Chalcis, Oreum, and Eretria, prepared to rebel, having previously solicited assistance from Peloponnesus, Acarnania, Attica, and every province of Greece, which they had any reason to deem favourable to their views. From other states they brought back promises and hopes; from Athens they obtained, chiefly by the influence of Demosthenes, a considerable body of troops commanded by the brave and virtuous Phocion. The orator accompanied the expedition; and being allowed to address the popular assemblies in most of the cities of Eubœa, he inflamed them with such animosity against Philip and his partisans, that little remained to be done by the valour of the Athenian general. The Eubœans every where took arms in defence of their freedom, the Macedonian garrisons were expelled from the principal cities, and driven from one post to another, till they were compelled entirely

The Athenians recover Eubœa.

³⁹ Plut. in Demosth.

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The merit
of Demos-
thenes ac-
knowledg-
ed on this
occasion.

Circum-
stances
which en-
abled the
Perinthi-
ans to
make an
obstinate
defence.
Olymp.
cix. 4.
A.C. 341.

to evacuate the island. This event occasioned great joy at Athens; and the principal merit was ascribed to Demosthenes, who, at the motion of Aristonicus, a man of merit and eminence, was crowned by the senate and people with a golden crown; which honour was publicly proclaimed in the theatre of Bacchus, during the representation of the new tragedies, amidst an immense concourse of people, citizens and strangers ⁴⁰.

The loss of Eubœa was ill compensated to Philip by the military operations against Perinthus, in which he found an enemy worthy of his courage and perseverance. The town was situated on the sloping ridge of an isthmus, and strongly fortified both by art and nature, the houses and streets rising one above another like the seats of an amphitheatre, so that the higher edifices overlooked and defended the lower. Having scoured the neighbouring country with his cavalry, Philip exhausted, in the siege of Perinthus, all the military skill known to the ancients. He raised towers forty cubits high, which enabled his men to fight on equal ground with the besieged; his miners were busy at the foundation; at length the battering-rams advanced to the wall, in which a considerable breach was made. During this time, however, the townsmen had not been idle. The superior discharge of darts, arrows, and every kind of missile weapon from the Macedonian towers, had indeed dislodged the Perinthians from

⁴⁰ Demosth. de Coron. & Plut. in Demosth.

those parts of the wall and battlements, against which the principal attack had been directed. But with incessant toil, the besieged built a new wall within the former, on which they appeared in battle array, prepared to repel the enemy who entered the breaches ⁴¹. The Macedonians, who advanced with impetuous joy to reap the fruits of their labour, were infinitely mortified to find that their work must be begun anew. Philip employed rewards and punishments, and all the resources of his mind fertile in expedients, to restore their hopes, and to reanimate their activity. The siege recommenced with fresh ardour, and the Perinthians were thrice reduced to extremity, when they were unexpectedly saved, first by a large supply of arms and provisions from Byzantium, next by a strong reinforcement of men in Persian pay, commanded by Apollodorus, a citizen of Athens; and lastly by the advantageous situation of the town, which, being built in a conical form, presenting its apex or narrow point to the besiegers, gradually rose and widened towards the remoter parts, from which it was easy to observe all the motions of the enemy, and to overwhelm them with missile weapons as they advanced to the charge. Philip, ever sparing of the lives of his men, was deterred by this circumstance from venturing an assault, though his machines had effected a breach in the new wall: he therefore determined to change the siege into a blockade. Perinthus was shut up

⁴¹ Diodor. p. 466, & seqq.

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as closely as possible by sea and land: part of the Macedonian troops who had become mutinous for want of pay (for Philip at this time owed above two hundred talents, or forty thousand pounds sterling), were indulged in plundering the rich territory of Byzantium, while the remainder were conducted to the siege of Selymbria, and soon after of Byzantium itself, the taking of which places, it was hoped, might compensate their lost labour at Perinthus ⁴².

The Thracian cities, supported by numerous allies, resist the arms of Philip.

During the military operations against the cities of the Propontis, Demosthenes did not cease exhorting his countrymen to undertake their defence, as essential to their own safety. The hostilities and devastations of Philip, he represented as the periodical returns of the pestilence and other contagious disorders, in which all men were alike threatened with their respective shares of calamity. He, who was actually sound and untainted, had an equal interest with the diseased and infirm, to root out the common evil, which, if allowed to lurk in any part, would speedily pervade and afflict the whole. The Macedonians now besieged Selymbria and Byzantium; if successful in these enterprises, they would soon appear before Sparta, Thebes, and Athens. Yet he knew not by what fatality the Greeks looked on the successive encroachments of Philip, not as events which their vigorous and united opposition might ward off and repel, but as disasters inflicted by the hand of providence; as a

⁴² Diodorus, l. xvi. c. xxii.

tempest-

tempestuous cloud of hail, so destructive to the vines in autumn, which all beheld, with horror, hovering over them, but none took any other means to prevent, than by deprecating the gods that it might not fall on his own fields ⁴³. These animated and just representations of the common distress or danger, engaged the Athenians to enter into a close correspondence with the besieged cities ⁴⁴. Demosthenes undertook a journey to Byzantium; and Leon, a Byzantine orator and patriot, the friend and fellow-student of the virtuous Phocion, resided as ambassador in Athens. At the same time the principal cities of the Propontis maintained an uninterrupted intercourse of good offices with each other, as well as with their allies of Rhodes and Chios, from whom they received repeated supplies of arms and provisions.

Philip, meanwhile, ceased not to assure the Athenians, by his letters and emissaries, that he was extremely desirous of maintaining peace with the republic, and gently chid them for their evident marks of partiality towards his enemies, which, however, he took care to ascribe, not to the general temper and disposition of the people,

Philip attacks and defeats Diopeithes, and justifies his conduct to the Athenians.

⁴³ Ἀλλὰ ὁμῶς ταυτ' ὁρῶντες οἱ Ἕλληνες ἀνεχίνται· καὶ τοιαυτὸν τροπὸν, ὅνπερ οἱ τὴν χαλαρὰν, ἐμοίγε δοκῶσι θεωρεῖν· εὐχομένοι μὴ καὶ ἑαυτοὺς ἐκαστοὶ γενεσθαι, πῶλυεν δὲ εὐδεις ἐπιχειρῶν. Demost. in Philip. iii. p. 48. In the country where I now write (the Pays de Vaud) the beauty and force of this comparison is too well understood. Lofty mountains covered with snow, sunny hills, and fertile vallies.—Such too is the geography of Greece, which rendered the hail-storms so alarming and so destructive.

⁴⁴ Demosthen. de Corona.

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but to the prevalence of a dangerous faction, inflamed by seditious and selfish demagogues. By a rapid march he had recently surpris'd an Athenian detachment ravaging the territory of Cardia. Diopceithes, the Athenian general in the Chersonesus, commanded this predatory band, who, after a slight skirmish, were repelled with the loss of their leader, slain by a dart, while he rallied his men with his voice and arm. Philip fail'd not, by letter, to excuse this act of hostility, to which, he assured the Athenians, that he had been compelled, much against his inclination: he affected to consider Diopceithes as the instrument of a malignant faction, headed by Demosthenes, rather than as the general of the republic; and as that commander had acted unwarrantably in plundering the Cardians, a people strictly allied with Macedon, Philip assured himself that the senate and people would not take it amiss that, provoked by repeated injuries, he had at length repelled violence, and defended the lives and fortunes of his long-injured confederates.

Philip's
admiral
seizes an
Athenian
convoy de-
stined for
the relief
of Selym-
bria.

While the Athenians and Philip were on this footing of correspondence, the former sent twenty vessels laden with corn to the relief of the Selymbrians. Leodamas, who commanded this convoy, seems to have imagined that the treaty formerly subsisting between the two powers, would protect him from injury. But in this he was disappointed. His fleet was surrounded and taken by Amyntas, who commanded the naval force of Macedon, and who determined to retain his prize, without paying

any regard to the complaints and remonstrances of Leodamas, who pretended that the convoy was not destined for Selymbria, but employed in conveying the superabundance of the fertile Chersonesus to the rocky and barren island of Lemnos.

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The news of the capture of their ships occasioned much tumult and uneasiness among the Athenians. After frequent deliberations on this subject, a decree was framed for sending ambassadors to Philip, in order to redemand their property, and to require that Amyntas, if he had exceeded his instructions, should be punished with due severity. Cephisophon, Democritus, and Polycrates, who were named for this commission, repaired without delay to Philip in the Hellespont, who, at their request, immediately released the captured vessels, and dismissed the Athenians with the following letter: "Philip king of Macedon, to the senate and people of Athens, Health. I have received three of your citizens in quality of ambassadors, who have conferred with me about the release of certain ships, commanded by Leodamas. I cannot but admire their simplicity in thinking to persuade me that these ships were intended to convey corn from the Chersonesus to the isle of Lemnos, and not destined for the relief of the Selymbrians, actually besieged by me, and nowise included in the treaty of pacification between Athens and Macedon. This unjust commission Leodamas received, not from the people of Athens, but from certain magistrates, and others now in private stations, who are too busy in urging you to violate

Philip restores the captured vessels, and writes an artful letter to the Athenians. Olymp. cix. 4. A.C. 341.

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your engagements, and to commence hostilities against me; a matter which they have more at heart than the relief of Selymbria, fondly imagining that they may derive advantage from such a rupture. Deeply persuaded that our mutual interest requires us to frustrate their wicked schemes, I have given orders to release the captured vessels; and do you, in return, remove such pernicious counsellors from the administration of your affairs; and let them feel the severity of your justice. On my part, I shall endeavour to preserve inviolate the treaty, by which we stand mutually engaged⁴⁵."

Demosthenes persuades the Athenians to succour the beleaguered cities in Thrace.

The moderate and friendly sentiments expressed in this letter afforded great advantage to the Macedonian partisans at Athens. But Demosthenes, and Leon of Byzantium, spared no pains to detect and expose the artifices and duplicity of Philip, who employed this humble and peaceful tone, during his operations against the cities of the Propontis, in order to stifle the resentment of the Athenians, at a crisis when they might act against him with peculiar advantage. In elaborate and powerful orations⁴⁶, in which, without urging any new matter, Demosthenes condensed, invigorated, and enlivened his former observations and reasonings, he convinced his countrymen of the expediency of being for once before-hand with their enemy, and of anticipating his designs against themselves by a speedy and effectual assistance to their distressed

⁴⁵ Epist. Philip. in Demosth.

⁴⁶ Orat. iv. in Philip. & Orat. de Epist. Philip.

brethren of Perinthus, Selymbria, and Byzantium. CHAP. XXXVI.
By his convincing eloquence the public councils were animated with a degree of energy and enthusiasm which had not appeared in them during many years, and which produced the last transitory glimpse of success and splendour, before the glory of Athens was extinguished for ever.

It was decreed by the senate and people, to fit out a fleet of an hundred and twenty galleys; but unfortunately the command was given to Chares, whose character rendered him as contemptible to the enemies, as he was formidable to the allies, of the republic. The Byzantines excluded him from their harbour, and he was defeated by Amyntas, the Macedonian admiral, off the opposite shore of Chalcedon. This disaster, which was chiefly occasioned by the incapacity of their commander, made the Athenians cast their eyes on Phocion⁴⁷, who, though ever ready to serve his country, was most frequently called for in times of danger and calamity.

Dishonourable expedition of Chares. Olymp. cx. 1. A. C. 340.

Before Phocion reached the Propontis, Philip, flushed with his naval success, made an attempt to storm Byzantium. That city was environed on three sides by the sea, and defended on the fourth by a strong wall, and a large and deep trench, covered by lofty towers, separated at small intervals from each other. Confident in the strength of the place and the abundance of their magazines, the inhabitants of Byzantium, without risking a sally, allowed Philip to carry on his works, and gradual-

Philip fails in his attempt to surprise Byzantium.

⁴⁷ Plutarch in Phocion.

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 XXXVI. this inaction of the townsmen, Philip carefully advanced his battering engines, and seemed determined to assault the walls; but, meanwhile, embraced proper measures for gaining the place by surprise. For executing this design, he chose the gloom of a tempestuous night; a determined band of Macedonians passed the ditch; the scaling-ladders were already fixed; when the centinels of Byzantium were alarmed by the barking of mastiffs, kept in the towers even in time of peace, to secure them in the night. The alarm spread with rapidity among the several guards, who rushing tumultuously from their respective stations, as if the enemy had been already masters of the town, were on the point of blindly assaulting each other, when a bright meteor, or repeated flashes of lightning, enabled them to distinguish their friends, and to discern the danger. Having formed in some degree of order, they advanced against the Macedonians, who had already gained the rampart, from which they were with difficulty repulsed by superior numbers⁴⁸.

The Athenians, commanded by Phocion, save the Thracian cities; Olymp. cx. I. A.C. 340. The defeat of this bold and dangerous enterprise did not discourage Philip from carrying on his operations with indefatigable diligence and vigour. His perseverance must finally have prevailed over the obstinacy of the besieged, had not the Athenian fleet, under Phocion, arrived in the Thracian Bosphorus. The Byzantines received

⁴⁸ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 468.

him with open arms, expecting that under such a commander, their auxiliaries would prove not less modest and inoffensive in their quarters, than active and intrepid in the field. Nor were their hopes disappointed; the arms of Philip were foiled in every rencounter; his artifices were met and eluded by similar address; nor could he expect by force or fraud to gain any advantage over an opponent alike brave and vigilant⁴⁹. The king of Macedon, who had as much flexibility in varying his measures, as firmness in adhering to his purposes, was unwilling any farther to press his bad fortune. In the actual state of his affairs, he judged it necessary to raise the siege of Byzantium, to withdraw his forces from Selymbria and Perinthus, and to leave the Athenians in possession of the northern shore of the Propontis. These were humiliating resolutions; but fortunately for Philip, an event fell out, which prevented the execution of them from reflecting much discredit on his arms or policy.

Phocion, to whose conduct the safety of so many important cities was principally owing, sailed from Byzantium amidst the grateful vows and acclamations of innumerable spectators. In his voyage to the Chersonesus, he captured a fleet of victualers and transports, carrying arms and provisions for the enemy. When he arrived in that peninsula, he repressed the insolence of the Cardians, who, reinforced by a Macedonian garrison, had recently undertaken an expedition against the city of Sestos. He recovered several places on the

and ravage
the Macedonian
territories.

⁴⁹ Plut. in Phocion.

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 XXXVI. to the dominion of the Macedonians; and, in
 concert with the inhabitants, took such measures
 as seemed most proper to protect the Athenian
 allies in those parts, from future danger. Instead
 of burdening the confederates with the maintenance
 of his army, he plentifully supplied all the wants
 of his soldiers from the enemy's country. He
 commanded in person the parties that went out
 to forage and to plunder; and in one of those
 expeditions, received a dangerous wound, yet did
 not embark for his return, until he had spread the
 terror of the Athenian name, by ravaging with fire
 and sword the hereditary dominions of Philip ⁵⁰.

Extraordi-
 nary ho-
 nours con-
 ferred on
 the Athe-
 nians and
 Phocion,
 by the ci-
 ties which
 they had
 relieved.

The meritorious services of Phocion were deeply felt and acknowledged by the communities whom he had protected and relieved ⁵¹. The deliverance and gratitude of the Chersonesus, of Perinthus, and of Byzantium, were testified by crowns, statues, inscriptions, and altars; and are still recorded in an oration of Demosthenes ⁵², which has deservedly survived those perishing monuments of gold and marble. The decree of the Byzantines and Perinthians, after describing the ancient and recent benefits of Athens towards them, enacted, that, in return for those favours, the Athenians should be entitled to the right of intermarriage, the privilege of purchasing lands in their territories, the freedom of their respective

⁵⁰ Plut. in Phocion. & Diodor. ubi supra.

⁵¹ Idem, ibid.

⁵² Demosthen. de Corona.

cities,

cities, and the first and most honourable place in all their entertainments and assemblies: That whatever Athenians chose to reside with them should be exempted from all taxes: And that, further, three statues, each sixteen cubits high, should be erected in the port of Byzantium, representing the republic of Athens, crowned by the Byzantines and Perinthians: That this crown should be proclaimed at the four principal festivals of Greece, in order to commemorate the magnanimity of Athens, and the gratitude of the Byzantines and Perinthians." The inhabitants of the Chersonesus were not less forward in their acknowledgments and rewards. After a similar preamble, setting forth the manifold favours of their great and generous allies, they resolved to crown the senate and people of Athens with a golden crown worth sixty talents; and to consecrate an altar to Gratitude and the Athenians. These public and solemn honours afforded matter of equal triumph to Phocion, who had executed, and to Demosthenes, who had advised the measures, in consequence of which such just glory had been acquired. At the distance of several years, the orator still boasted of this important service. "You have frequently, Athenians! rewarded with crowns the statesmen most successful in conducting your affairs. But name, if you can, any other counsellor, any other statesman, by whose means the state itself hath been thus honoured⁵³."

⁵³ Demosth. de Coron.

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Atheas
king of
Scythia
invites
Philip to
assist him
against the
Illyrians.


The circumstance which enabled Philip to elude the violence of the storm with which the hostility of Athens, Persia, and so many other powers, had been long preparing to overwhelm him, took its rise from an error of judgment, occasioned by that boundless ambition which formed the ruling passion of the Macedonian prince. Beyond the confines of Thrace, and beyond the northern frontier of the Lower Mœsia, dwelt a powerful Scythian tribe, in the valuable peninsula contained between the western waves of the Euxine and the majestic stream of the Danube. The roving and unsettled life of the Scythians, like that of their descendants the Tartars, had led them into this country, from their native and proper territories, embracing the six mouths of the Danube or Ister, the banks of the Boristhenes, and the shores of the Palus Mœotis, which districts in ancient times had the name of Little Scythia ⁵⁴, and are still called Little Tartary ⁵⁵. A monarch less warlike and less ambitious than Philip, might have observed, with indignation and regret, those fierce and rapacious Barbarians, extending themselves beyond their natural limits, and enjoying an establishment to the south of the Danube; which great river, as he was already master of Thrace, and counted the Triballi of Mœsia among the number of his tributaries, Philip's proud and usurping fancy had already grasped as the frontier of his empire, and the proper line of separation between barbarous and civilized

⁵⁴ Herodotus & Strabo, *passim*.

⁵⁵ Geograph. de D'Anville.
nations.

nations. It was not, therefore, without such excess of joy as transported him beyond the bounds of sound policy, that, amidst his preparations against the cities on the Propontis, he received an invitation from Atheas⁵⁶, who styled himself king of the Scythians, to march to his assistance, and to defend his dominions, consisting in the peninsula above mentioned, against an invasion of the Istrians, which the domestic forces of Atheas was totally unable to resist. To this proposal was added a condition extremely alluring to the king of Macedonia, that if his auxiliary arms enabled Atheas to vanquish and expel the invaders, Philip should be named heir to the *kingdom* of Scythia; for, according to the fashion of ancient times, Atheas dignified with the name of kingdom, a territory little larger than the principality of Wales.

In greedily snatching this bait laid for his ambition, Philip was not enough on his guard against the usual perfidy and levity of Barbarians; nor did he sufficiently consider, that by sending a powerful detachment into Scythia, he must greatly weaken his exertions against the cities of the Propontis. With an ardour and alacrity too rapid for reflection, he eagerly closed with the propositions of Atheas, sent a great body of forces to the north, and promised to assist them in person at the head of his whole army, should they encounter any difficulty in the execution of their purpose. Meanwhile the warlike chief of the Istrians, whose courage alone animated, and whose conduct ren-

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Perfidy
and inso-
lence of
that Bar-
barian.

⁵⁶ Justin. l. ix. c. ii.

dered

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dered successful, the arms of his followers, was cut off by sudden death: the dispirited Istrians were attacked, defeated, and repelled; and, without the assistance of Macedon, Atheas once more regained possession of his kingdom. This unexpected revolution served to display the crafty and faithless Barbarian in his genuine deformity. The Macedonian troops were received coldly, treated with contempt, and absolutely denied their stipulated pay and subsistence. Their just remonstrances and complaints Atheas heard with scorn, and totally disavowed the propositions and promises of those who styled themselves his ambassadors; observing "how unlikely it was, that he should have solicited the assistance of the Macedonians, who, brave as they were, could fight only with men, while the Scythians could combat cold and famine; and that it would have been still more unnatural to appoint Philip his successor, since he had a son of his own, worthy to inherit his crown and dignity ⁵⁷."

Philip remonstrates with him in vain.

Upon receiving an account of the insolent behaviour of a prince who had so recently solicited his alliance, Philip, while still busily, but unsuccessfully, employed against the cities of the Propontis, sent an embassy to Scythia, requiring Atheas to satisfy the just demands of the Macedonian troops, and to indemnify himself for the expence incurred in his defence. The ambassadors found the king of Scythia in his stable, currying his horse. When they testified surprise at

⁵⁷ Justin, l. ix. c. 2.

seeing

seeing him engaged in such an occupation, he asked them, Whether their master did not often employ himself in the same manner? adding, that for his own part, in time of peace, he made not any distinction between himself and his groom. When they opened their commission, and explained the demands of Philip, the subtle Barbarian told them, that the poverty of Scythia could not furnish a present becoming the greatness of their master; and that, therefore, it seemed more eligible to offer nothing at all, than a present totally unworthy of his acceptance⁵⁸.

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This evasive and mortifying answer being brought to the king of Macedon when foiled and harassed, yet not disheartened, by his unprosperous expedition against Byzantium, furnished him with a very honourable pretence for raising the siege of that place, and conducting a powerful army into Scythia, that he might chastise the treacherous ingratitude of a prince, who, after having overreached him by policy, now mocked him with insolence. Having advanced to the frontier of Atheas's dominions, Philip had recourse to his usual arts, and sent a herald with the ensigns of peace and friendship, to announce his arrival in Scythia, in order to perform a solemn vow which he had made during the siege of Byzantium, to erect a brazen statue to Hercules on the banks of the Danube. The cunning Atheas was not the dupe of this artifice, which he knew how to encounter and elude with similar address. Without

Philip determines to chastise his ingratitude and perfidy.

⁵⁸ Justin, l. ix. c. ii.

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his Scy-
thian ex-
pedition.

praising or blaming the pious intention of the king, he coolly desired him to forward the statue, which he himself would take care to erect in the appointed place; that should it be set up with his concurrence and direction, it would probably be allowed to stand; otherwise, he could give no assurance that the Scythians would not pull it down, and melt it, to make points for their weapons^{s8}.

The return of the Macedonian herald gave the signal for hostility. Philip entered the country with fire and sword, destroying the forests and pasturage, and seizing the slaves and cattle, which formed the principal wealth of the Scythians. He seems to have employed several weeks in an expedition, the circumstances of which, were they essential to the design of this work, could not be related with any fulness or accuracy. Countries in a pastoral state are but thinly peopled; and Philip was obliged to divide his forces, in order to vanquish with greater rapidity the wandering hordes, separated from each other by wide intervals, according as a forest, a meadow, or a stream of fresh water, obtained their preference, and fixed their temporary abode. A party of Macedonian soldiers beat up the quarters of a numerous and warlike clan, by which they were repelled, with the loss of several slain or taken. Among the latter was Ismenias, an eminent musician, who had been invited by liberal rewards to reside at the court of Philip, after being long admired in Greece for his performance on the flute. This distinguished captive was sent as a present to Atheas,

^{s8} Justin. l. ix. c. 2.

who was so little delighted with his accomplishments, that having heard him perform, he acknowledged the neighing of his horse to be to his ear far more agreeable music. The skirmish in which Ismenias was taken, seems to have been the principal advantage obtained by the Barbarians, whose constitutional courage, and impetuous ill-directed fury, was every-where overcome by the disciplined valour of the Macedonian phalanx ⁵⁹.

Philip reaped such fruits from his expedition as might be expected by a victory over a people who had no king but their general, no god but their sword, and no cities but the ground on which they occasionally encamped with their herds and families. The spoil consisted in arms, chariots, twenty thousand robust captives, a greater number of mares, destined to replenish the studs of Pella ⁶⁰. We are not informed whether Philip erected the promised statue to the great founder and protector of his family and kingdom. It is probable that he imposed a tribute on the Scythians, as a mark of their submission and dependence, purposing to reduce them more thoroughly, when he had effected his great designs in Greece, to which country the silent operation of his intrigues now summoned his return.

The nature and quantity of the booty.

But while he marched southward at the head of an army encumbered with baggage and spoil, a very unexpected event threatened to blast his laurels, and to terminate at once his glory and his

Philip, on his return, surprised by the Triballi.

⁵⁹ Justin. l. ii. c. 5.

⁶⁰ Compar. Justin. l. ix. c. 2. & Strabo, p. 752.

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life. Allured by the hopes of sharing the warlike plunder of the Scythians, the barbarous Triballi, who had been often conquered, but never thoroughly subdued, beset by ambush, and vigorously assaulted the Macedonians, entangled amidst the intricate windings of the mountains of Mœsia; hoping to cut off, by one stroke, the flower of a nation whose authority their own fierce spirit of independence had very reluctantly condescended to obey. The confusion and the danger was increased by a mercenary band of Greeks, who, harassed by the fatigues of war and travelling, always clamorous for pay, which was very irregularly paid them, and perhaps jealous of the Macedonians, seized the present opportunity to desert the standard of Philip, and to reinforce the arms of the Triballi⁶¹.

Alexander
saves the
life of his
father,

The king of Macedon, too prudent to undertake superfluous danger, never acquired by valour what might be obtained by stratagem; but when a necessary occasion solicited his courage and his prowess, he knew how to assume the hero, and (if we may transpose an ancient proverb) “to eke out the fox’s with the lion’s skin⁶².” The urgency of the present emergence summoned all the firmness of his mind. With his voice and example he encouraged the astonished and disheartened Macedonians; conducted his faithful guards to the heat of the battle, and fought with unexampled bravery, till the same weapon which pierced

⁶¹ Justin. l. ix. c. 3. Plut. in Alexand.

⁶² Vid. Plut. in Lyfand.

his horse, laid the rider senseless on the ground. CHAP.
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The young Alexander, who fought near him, derived peculiar glory from saving the life of his father, whom he covered with his shield, and defended by his sword, until his attendants conveyed him to a place of safety ⁶³; the son so worthily succeeding to the command, that the tumult was fortunately appeased, and the Barbarians routed and put to flight. Philip's wound was attended with an incurable lameness, which he bore with much impatience. His magnanimous son endeavoured to remove his anxiety by asking, how he could be chagrined at an accident, which continually reminded him of his valour ⁶⁴?

and de-
feats the
Triballi.

To repair the effects of this unforeseen delay, the Macedonians hastened through Thrace, where Philip, as he had reason to expect, was met by deputies from the Amphictyonic council, appointing him general of their forces, and requesting him to march into Greece with all convenient speed. The secret practices and intrigues, which had been ripening during the Scythian expedition, produced this extraordinary message, the remote as well as immediate causes of which deserve to be distinctly unravelled, being the last knot of a tragedy which involves the fate of Greece.

Philip ap-
pointed
general of
the Am-
phictyons.
Olymp.
cx. 2.
A.C. 339.

The spirited resistance of Selymbria and Byzantium, the successful expeditions of Phocion in the Hellespont and Propontis, the prodigal terrors of Ochus king of Persia, who thought it impossible to

The situa-
tion of
Philip's
affairs en-
courages
the Athe-

⁶³ Plut. de Fortun. Alexand. & Justin. l. ix. c. 3.

⁶⁴ Plut. in Alexand.

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nians to
exert
themselves
with vi-
gour.
Olymp.
cx. 2.
A.C. 339.

employ his wealth more usefully than in bridling the ambition of Philip; above all, the continual expostulations and remonstrances of Demosthenes, conspired to rouse the Athenians from the lethargy in which they had been long sunk, and animated them with a desire to carry on the war with activity and effect against the common enemy of Greece. In order to save the state, they consented (though probably not without a violent struggle) to abolish the very popular law, or rather abuse, introduced by Eubulus. The theatrical amusements, so passionately idolised by the multitude, were celebrated with less pomp and splendour; and the military fund was thenceforth applied to its original and proper destination. A fleet was equipped far superior to the naval strength of Macedon⁶⁵. The troops and partisans of that kingdom were driven from their ambushes in Megara, and in the neighbouring territories, where they had long watched an opportunity of destroying the liberty of Athens. Demosthenes, and Hyperides, an orator second only to Demosthenes, were dispatched into the Peloponnesus and other parts of Greece, to persuade the several republics to second the generous ardour of the Athenians, whose recent success under Phocion added great weight to the arguments and eloquence of those illustrious statesmen⁶⁶.

Difficul-
ties with
which
Philip had
to struggle.

Philip was accurately informed of all those transactions; and the alarm universally spread among his faithful emissaries, inclined them rather to exaggerate, than to conceal, the danger. Highly

⁶⁵ Demosthen. de Corona.

⁶⁶ Idem, ibid.

provoked

provoked against the Athenians, the continual oppressors of his greatness, he was unable to retaliate their injuries. If he attacked them by land, he must march through the territories of the Thebans and Theffalians, who, ever selfish and capricious, would be ready to forsake him with his good fortune. His disgraceful expedition against the cities of the Propontis, rendered the present juncture extremely unfavourable to such a hazardous design. Nor could he attempt, with any prospect of success, to attack the enemy by sea, since the Athenian fleet so far exceeded his own, that it had interrupted, and almost totally destroyed, the commerce of Macedon.

Amidst this complication of difficulties, Philip shewed how well he understood the unsteady temper of the Greeks, by raising the siege of Byzantium, and burying himself in the wilds of Scythia, till the fuming animosity of his adversaries had time to evaporate. Not venturing on open hostility, he, meanwhile, employed two secret engines, which continued to work during his absence, and from which he had reason to expect very signal advantages before his return. There lived at Athens a man of the name of Antiphon, bold, loud, and loquacious in the popular assembly, in which, however, he had not a title to vote, much less to speak, his name not being recorded in the public register of the city. This defect passed long unobserved, through that supine negligence with which Demosthenes so frequently upbraids his countrymen. At length the treason of Antiphon (for the Athenians

His intrigues with the incendiary Antiphon;

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regarded an unqualified voter in the assembly as an usurper of sovereign power) was discovered, and arraigned by one of the many citizens to whom his insolence and calumny had justly rendered him obnoxious; in consequence of which impeachment, the supposititious Athenian was divested of his borrowed character, and driven with ignominy from a country, whose most august rights and honours he had usurped and disgraced. Stung with disappointment and rage, Antiphon had recourse to the king of Macedon, and offered himself for any enterprise, however bloody or desperate, by which, in serving the interest of Philip, he might gratify his own thirst for vengeance. The ambitious Macedonian kept his ends too steadily in view, and pursued them with too much ardour and perseverance, to be very delicate in choosing the means by which he might distress his adversaries. He greedily closed, therefore, with the proposal of Antiphon, in whom he rejoiced to find an instrument so fit for his service.

who at-
tempts to
set fire to
the Athe-
nian
docks.

The superiority of the Athenians by sea, which their actual diligence in their docks and arsenals shewed them determined to maintain and increase, formed the chief obstacle to the grandeur of Macedon. By whom the design was suggested, is unknown; but it was agreed between Philip and Antiphon, that the latter should return to Athens in disguise, insinuate himself into the Piræus, and lie there in concealment, until he found an opportunity to set fire to the Athenian docks, and thus destroy at once the main hope of the republic.

While

While the artful king of Macedon eluded the storm of his enemies by wandering in the woods of Scythia, his perfidious accomplice lurked, like a serpent, in the bosom of Athens, being lodged without suspicion in the harbour which glowed with the ardour of naval preparation, and into which were daily accumulated new masses of tar, timber, and other materials, alike proper for a fleet, and for the purpose of Antiphon.

But the vigilance of Demosthenes discovered this desperate design, when on the point of execution. He immediately flew to the Piræus, dragged Antiphon from his concealment, divested him of his disguise, and produced him at the bar of the assembly. The capricious and deluded multitude, alike prone to anger and to compassion, were on this occasion very differently affected from what might be conjectured. Instead of execrating a wretch capable of such black deeds, they beheld, with pity, a man once regarded as their fellow-citizen, brought before them after a long absence, and accused, perhaps on vain presumptions, of such a horrid crime. They knew besides the wicked artifices of their orators, who, to encrease their own importance, often terrified the public with false alarms and imaginary dangers. Æschines, and other partisans of Philip, were at hand to strengthen these impressions. They represented the whole transaction of Demosthenes as a complication of fraud and cruelty; loudly inveighed against his insolent triumph over the calamities of the unfortunate; and reproached his entering by force into the house
where

The design detected by Demosthenes.

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where Antiphon was concealed, as a violation of freedom pregnant with the most dangerous consequences, and as trampling on the respected maxim of Athenian law and religion, that every man's house was his sanctuary⁶⁷. Such was the effect of these clamours, that Antiphon was dismissed without the formality of a trial, and might, perhaps, have resumed his purpose with more security than before, had not the senate of the Areopagus more carefully examined the information of Demosthenes. By the authority of that court, the traitor was again seized, and tried. Torture, which the institution of domestic slavery introduced and rendered familiar in Greece, extorted from him a late and reluctant confession; and his enormous guilt was punished with as enormous severity⁶⁸.

Philip's
intrigues
for em-
broiling
the affairs
of Greece.

Had the detestable enterprise of Antiphon been crowned with unmerited success, Philip would have attained his purpose of ruining Athens, by a rude stroke of vulgar perfidy. But the engines which he set in motion for gaining the same end, at a time when he was obliged to fly the awakened resentment of Greece, and to bury in the wilds of Scythia the disgrace sustained before the walls of Byzantium, will not be easily matched by any parallel transactions in history, whether we consider the profound artifice with which the plan was contrived and combined, the nice adaptation of the several parts, or the unwearied dexterity with which

⁶⁷ Lyfias passim in Agorat. & Eratosth.

⁶⁸ Demosthenes de Coron. who gives the honourable account of his own conduct described in the text.

the whole was carried into execution. It is on this occasion that Demosthenes might justly exclaim, "In one circumstance, chiefly, is Philip distinguished above all his ambitious predecessors, the enemies of Grecian freedom. His measures required the co-operation of traitors, and traitors he has found more corrupt and more dexterous than ever appeared in any former age; and, what is most worthy of remark, the principal instruments of his ambition flourished in the bosom of that state, whose public councils most openly opposed his greatness⁶⁹."

The time approached for convening at Delphi the vernal assembly of the Amphiſtyons. It was evidently the interest of the Athenians, and might have been expected from their just resentment against Philip, that they should send such deputies to the city of Apollo, as were most hostile to the Macedonian, and most zealous in the cause of liberty and their country. But intrigue and cabal prevailed over every motive of public utility; and the negligent or factious multitude were persuaded, at a crisis which demanded the most faithful and incorrupt ministers, to employ, as their representatives in the Amphiſtyonic council, Æschines and Midias; the former of whom had so often reproached, and the latter had, on one occasion, struck Demosthenes in the public theatre⁷⁰; and who were both not only the declared

His partisans sent from Athens as deputies to the Amphiſtyons.

⁶⁹ Demosth. de Coron.

⁷⁰ Demosth. in Mid. & Æschin. in Ctesiphont.

enemies

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enemies of this illustrious patriot, but, as well as their colleagues Diognetus and Thraſicles, the warm and active partisans of the king of Macedon. Soon after their arrival at Delphi, Midias and Diognetus⁷¹ pretended sickness, that they might allow Æschines to display, uncontrouled, his superior dexterity; and to act a part, which, requiring the deepest dissimulation, might be performed most successfully by a single traitor. The Amphictyons were employed in repairing the temple; the sacred offerings, which had been removed and sold by the impiety of the Phocians, were collected from every quarter of Greece; and new presents were made by several states, to supply the place of the old, which could not be recovered.

Who presented a dedication to the temple highly offensive to the Thebans.

The Athenians particularly signalised their pious munificence, and sent, among other dedications, several golden shields, with the following inscription: "Taken from the Medes and Thebans, when they fought against Greece." This offering, highly offensive to the Theban deputies, was prematurely suspended in the temple; the Thebans murmured, the Amphictyons listened to their complaints, and it was whispered in the council, that the Athenians deserved punishment for presenting their gift to the god, before it had been regularly consecrated, together with the other offerings. Pretending high indignation at these murmurs,

⁷¹ Æschines says, Διογνήτωρ πυρεττεῖν; "That Diognetus was seized with a fever, and that the same misfortune happened to Midias," p. 290.

Æschines

Æschines⁷² rushed into the assembly, and began a formal, yet spirited defence of his countrymen; when he was rudely interrupted by a Locrian, of Amphissa⁷³, a city eight miles distant from Delphi, which growing populous and powerful on the ruins of Crissa and Cirrha, had ventured to cultivate the Cirrhean plain, which, near three centuries before, had been desolated by the Amphictyons, solemnly consecrated to Apollo, and devoted to perpetual sterility⁷⁴.

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The artful Locrian, affecting a religious zeal not less ardent than the patriotism of Æschines, clamorously interrupted that orator, calling aloud in the assembly, that it ill became the dignity of the Amphictyons to hear with patience the justification, much less the praises of Athens, a city impious and profane, which, in defiance of human and divine laws, had so recently abetted the execrable sacrilege of the Phocians; that if the Amphictyons followed his advice, or consulted the dictates of duty and honour, they would not allow the detested name of the Athenians to be mentioned in that august council⁷⁵.

The Athenians reproached by the deputy of Amphissa.

⁷² Αρχόμενός δὲ μὴ λέγειν, καὶ προθυμότερον πῶς εἰσέληλυθὸς εἰς τὸ συνέδριον. Æschin. p. 290.

⁷³ Æschines varnishes the story with inimitable address: ἀνατοπῶν τις τῶν Ἀμφισσέων, ἀνθρώπος ἀσελγέστατος, καὶ ὡς ἐμοὶ ἐφαί-
ντο ὑδμεῖας παιδείας μετεσχῆκως, ἰσως δὲ καὶ δαιμονίως ἐξαμαρτα-
νὴν αὐτοὶ προαγομένη. "He was interrupted by the vociferation
of a certain Amphissean, a man the most impudent, totally illi-
terate, and perhaps impelled to folly by some offended divinity."

⁷⁴ See these events particularly related, vol. i. c. v. p. 213.

⁷⁵ Æschin. in Ctesiphont.

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Æschines
inveighs
against the
Locrians
for culti-
vating the
Cirrhean
plain;

Æschines thus obtained an opportunity of exciting such tumults in the assembly as suited the views of Philip⁷⁶. In the ardour of patriotic indignation, which he knew so well to assume, he poured forth a torrent of impetuous invective against the insolent Locrian, and his city Amphissa; not only justified the innocence, but displayed with ostentation, the illustrious merit of the Athenians; and then addressing the Amphictyons with a look peculiarly earnest and expressive, “ Say, ye Grecians! shall men who never knew the exalted pleasures of virtue and renown, be suffered to tear from us the inestimable rewards of glory so justly earned⁷⁷? Shall men, themselves polluted by sacrilege, and already devoted to destruction by the most awful imprecations, presume to call the Athenians profane and impious? Look down, ye reverend guardians of religion! look down on that plain (pointing to the Cirrhean plain, which might be seen from the temple), behold these lands anciently devoted to the god, but now appropriated and cultivated by the Amphisseans; behold the numerous

⁷⁶ Demosthen. de Corona.

⁷⁷ The persuasive energy with which Æschines defends his treachery, or rather displays his patriotism, on this occasion, is not excelled by any thing in Demosthenes himself. Had the works of the latter perished, the two orations of Æschines (de falsa Legatione, and in Ctesiphont.) would have justly been regarded as the most perfect models of eloquence produced by human genius. But the works, and even the name of Æschines, are eclipsed in the fame of his rival. So disproportionate are the rewards of acting a first and a second part, and so just the poet’s advice to all candidates for fame:

Αὐτὸ ἀρίστευον καὶ ὑπερχοῦν ἐμμεναι ἄλλω.

buildings which they have erected there, and that accursed port of Cirrha, justly demolished by our ancestors, now rebuilt and fortified." Æschines here read the oracle of Apollo, which condemned that harbour and those lands to perpetual desolation. Then proceeding with increased vehemence: "For myself, ye Grecians! I swear, that I myself, my children, my country, will discharge our duty to heaven; and, with all the powers and faculties of mind and body, avenge the abominable violation of the consecrated territory. Do you, Amphictyons! determine as wisdom shall direct. Your offerings are prepared, your victims are brought to the altar; you are ready to offer solemn prayers for blessings on yourselves, and on the republics which you represent. But consider with what voice, with what heart, with what confidence, you can breathe out your petitions, while you suffer the profanation of the Amphisseans to pass unrevenged. Hear the words of the imprecation, not only against those who cultivate the consecrated ground, but against those who neglect to punish them: "May they never present an acceptable offering to Apollo, Diana, Latona, or Minerva the provident; but may all their sacrifices and religious rites be for ever rejected and abhorred"⁷⁸!"

The warmth of Æschines occasioned the utmost confusion in the assembly. The golden shields, irregularly dedicated by the Athenians, were no longer the subject of discourse. This slight impro-

which excites the third sacred war.

⁷⁸ Pausanias Phocic. & Æschin. in Ctesiphont.

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priety disappeared amidst the enormous impieties of the Amphisseans, which had been so forcibly painted to the superstitious fancies of the terrified multitude. It was determined, after violent contentions between those who accused, and those who defended, this unhappy people, that the Amphictyons, having summoned the assistance of the citizens of Delphi, should next day repair to the Cirrhean plain, in order to burn, cut down, and destroy the houses and plantations, which had so long adorned and defiled that devoted territory. The ravagers met with little opposition in performing this pious devastation; but as they returned towards the temple, they were overtaken and assaulted by a numerous party of Amphisseans, who threw them into disorder, took several prisoners, and pursued the rest to Delphi. The signal of war was now raised; the insulted Amphictyons, in whose persons the sanctity of religion had been violated, complained to their respective republics, while the recent audacity of the Amphisseans aggravated their ancient crimes and enormities. But agreeably to the languor inherent in councils which possess only a delegated authority, the measures of the Amphictyons were extremely slow and irresolute; and when they at length raised an army under the command of Cottyphus, a Thessalian, and a creature of Philip's, their operations were ill conducted and unsuccessful⁷⁹.

The Amphictyons appoint

Affairs were thus brought to the issue which had been expected by Æschines, and the accomplices

⁷⁹ Æschin. in Ctesiphont.

who

who assisted him in promoting the interest of the king of Macedon. They loudly declaimed in the council against the lukewarm indifference of the Grecian states in a war which so deeply concerned the national religion. "It became the Amphictyons, therefore, as the ministers of Apollo, and the guardians of his temple, to seek out and employ some more powerful instrument of the divine vengeance. Philip of Macedon had formerly given proof of his pious zeal in the Phocian war. That prince was now returning in triumph from his Scythian expedition. His assistance must again be demanded (nor would it be demanded in vain) to defend the cause of Apollo and the sacred shrine." This proposal being approved, a deputation of the Amphictyons met Philip in Thrace. He received their welcome message with well-affected surprise, but declared his veneration for the commands of the council, which he should be ever ready to obey⁸⁰.

The vigilant prince had already taken proper measures for acting as general of the Amphictyons, and provided a sufficient number of transports to convey his army into Greece. He understood that notwithstanding the intrigues of Æschines and his associates, the Athenians had been persuaded by Demosthenes to oppose his design, and that their admirals Chares and Proxenus prepared to intercept his passage with a superior naval force. To baffle this opposition, Philip employed

Philip
eludes the
Athenian
fleet by a
stratagem.

⁸⁰ Æschin. in Ctesiphont.

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a stratagem. A light brigantine was dispatched to Macedon with letters of such import as gave reason to believe that he purposed immediately returning into Thrace⁸¹. Besides writing to Antipater, his principal confidant and minister, he took care to mask his artifice, by sending letters to his queen Olympias. The brigantine designedly fell into the hands of the Athenians. The dispatches were seized and read; but the letter of the queen was politely forwarded to its destination⁸². The Athenian admirals quitted their station, and Philip arrived, without opposition, on the coast of Locris, from whence he proceeded to Delphi.

Philip defeats the Athenian mercenaries, and takes possession of Amphissa.

Though the Macedonians alone were far more numerous than seemed necessary for the reduction of Amphissa, the king, in the month of November, dispatched circular letters through most parts of Greece, requiring from the Thebans, Peloponnesians, and other states, the assistance of their combined arms to maintain the cause of the Amphictyons and Apollo. The Thebans, rather intimidated by a powerful army in their neighbourhood, than inclined to the Macedonians, of whose designs they had lately become extremely jealous, sent a small body of infantry to join the standard of Philip. The Lacedæmonians, long disgusted with the measures of Greece, and envying the power of Macedon, which they had not public spirit to oppose, beheld all recent transactions with a contemptuous disregard, and seemed firm in

⁸¹ Polyæn. l. iv. c. ii.

⁸² Plut. in Demetr.

their

their purpose of preserving a fullen neutrality. CHAP.
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 The Athenians, awakened by the activity of Demosthenes to a sense of their danger, opposed Philip with ten thousand mercenaries, despising the threats of the oracle, against those who took part with the impious Amphisseans. The orator boldly accused the Pythian priestess and her ministers of being bribed to Philippise, or to prophesy as might best suit the interest of Philip; while Æschines, on the other hand, accused his adversary of having received a thousand drachmas, and an annual pension of twenty minæ, to abet the impiety of Amphissa⁸³. The king of Macedon, without waiting for any farther reinforcement than that which he had received from the Thebans, besieged, took, and garrisoned that unfortunate city; and having routed and put to flight the Athenian mercenaries, spread the terror of his arms round all the neighbouring territory⁸⁴.

The news of these events occasioned dreadful consternation in Athens. The terrified citizens, who could not be persuaded to tear themselves from their beloved pleasures in order to defend Amphissa, believed the moment approaching when they must defend their own walls against the victorious invader. After less altercation and delay than usually prevailed in their councils, they sent an embassy to Philip, craving a suspension of hostilities, and, at the same time, dispatched their ablest orators to rouse the Greeks from their supine negligence, and

The Athenians, while they negotiate with Philip, raise a confederacy against that prince.

⁸³ Æschia. in Ctesiphont.

⁸⁴ Demosthen. de Corona.

C. H. A. P.
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The The-
bans fluctuate be-
tween the
party of
Philip and
that of the
Atheni-
ans.

to animate and unite them against a Barbarian, who, under pretence of avenging the offended divinity of Apollo, meditated the subjugation of their common country. Megara, Eubœa, Leucas, Corinth, Corcyra, and Achaia, favourably received the ambassadors, and readily entered into a league against Macedon. Thebes fluctuated in uncertainty, hating the Athenians as rivals, and dreading Philip as a tyrant. The situation of the Theban territory, through which Philip must march before he could invade Attica, rendered the decision of that people peculiarly important³⁵. To gain or to retain their friendship, the intrigues of Philip, the eloquence of Athens, had been employed with unwearied assiduity. The Thebans temporised, deliberated, resolved, and changed their resolutions. The partisans of Athens were most numerous, those of Macedon most active, while the great body of the Theban people heard the clamours and arguments of both parties with that stupid indifference, and took their measures with that lethargic slowness, which disgraced even the heavy character of *Bœotians*³⁶.

Philip
seizes Ela-
tæa.
Olymp.
cx. 3.
A. C. 338.

To fix their wavering irresolution, and to awaken their sensibility, Philip at length had recourse to the strong impression of terror. From the general wreck of Phocis, his foresight and policy had spared the walls of Elatæa, a city important by its situation between two ranges of mountains, which opened into Phocis and Bœotia. The ci-

³⁵ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 475.

³⁶ Demosthen. de Coron.

radel was built on an eminence, washed by the river Cephissus, which flowed in a winding course through Bœotia into the lake Copais; a broad expanse of water, which, by several navigable streams, communicated with Attica. This valuable post, conveniently situate for receiving reinforcements from Thessaly and Macedon, commanding the passage into Bœotia, distant only two days march from Attica, and which, being garrisoned by a powerful army, might continually alarm the safety of Thebes and Athens, Philip seized with equal boldness and celerity⁸⁷, drew the greater part of his troops thither, repaired and strengthened the walls of the place, and having thus secured himself from surprise, watched a favourable opportunity of inflicting punishment on the Athenians, who had given him sufficient ground to represent them as the enemies of the Amphictyonic council⁸⁸, by whose authority the king of Macedon affected to be guided in all his operations.

We are not acquainted with the immediate effect of this vigorous measure on the resolutions of the Thebans; but the terror and consternation of the uncorrupt part of the citizens, may be conjectured by what happened on the same occasion at Athens. It was late in the evening when a courier arrived with the melancholy tidings that Philip had taken possession of Elatæa. The people had retired to their houses; the magistrates supped in the Prytanæum; but in a moment all were abroad.

Alarm
thereby
excited in
Athens.

⁸⁷ Diodor. & Demosthen. ubi supra. ⁸⁸ Æschin. in Ctesiphont.

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Some hastened to the generals; others went in quest of the officer⁸⁹ whose business it was to summon the citizens to council; most flocked to the marketplace; and, in order to make room for the assembly, pulled down or burned the temporary wooden edifices erected by the tradesmen or artificers who exposed their wares to sale in that spacious square. Before dawn the confusion ceased; the citizens were all assembled; the senators took their places; the president reported to them the alarming intelligence that had been received. The herald then proclaimed with a loud voice, "That he who had any thing to offer on the present emergence, should mount the rostrum, and propose his advice." The invitation, though frequently repeated, was received with silence and dismay. The magistrates, the generals, the demagogues, were all present; but none obeyed the summons of the herald, which Demosthenes calls the voice of their country imploring the assistance of her children⁹⁰.

Demosthenes exhorts the Athenians to oppose Philip to the utmost of their power by sea and land.

At length that accomplished orator arose, and obtained the noblest triumph of patriotism; having proposed, amidst universal consternation, an advice equally prudent, generous, and successful. He began by darting a ray of hope into the desponding citizens, and assuring them that, were not the Thebans, the greater part at least of the

⁸⁹ Τοι σαλπινγκτην εκαλεῖ, p. 317.

⁹⁰ Καλήσης δὲ τῆς κοινῆς τῆς πατρίδος Φωνῆς τοι βρεῖτα ὑπὲρ σωτηρίας· ἢ γὰρ ὁ κηρυξ κατὰ τῆς νομῆς Φωνὴν ἀφίησι, ταύτην κοινὴν τῆς πατρίδος δίκαιον ἐστὶ ἡγεῖσθαι, p. 317. The passage that follows has been often cited, and can never be too much studied, as one of the finest examples of oratorical narration.

Thebans,

Thebans, hostile to Philip, that prince would not be actually posted at Elatæa, but on the Athenian frontier. He exhorted his countrymen to shake off the unmanly terror which had surpris'd them; and, instead of fearing for themselves, to fear only for their neighbours, whose territories were more immediately threatened, and who must sustain the first shock of the invasion. "Let your forces," continued he, "immediately march to Eleufis, in order to show the Thebans, and all Greece, that as those who have sold their country, are supported by the Macedonian forces at Elatæa, so you are ready to defend with your hereditary courage and fortune those who fight for liberty. Let ambassadors at the same time be sent to Thebes, to remind that republic of the good offices conferred by your ancestors; to assure the Thebans, that you do not consider them as aliens; that the people of Athens have forgot all recent hostilities with the citizens of Greece, and will never forsake the cause of their common country, which is actually, in a peculiar manner, the cause of Thebes. To this community, therefore, offer your most disinterested services. To make any demand for yourselves, would be highly improper in the present juncture. Assure them that you are deeply affected by their danger, and prepared generously to defend them to the utmost of your power."

These proposals being received with general approbation, Demosthenes drew up a formal decree for carrying them into execution; a decree which may be considered as the expiring voice of a people,

The decree for that purpose, dated August.

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who, agreeably to the magnanimous counsel of Pericles, had determined, that when every thing mortal perished, the fame of Athens should remain⁹¹. Having painted, in the most odious colours, the perfidy and violence of Philip; and having stigmatized with due severity the recent in-

⁹¹ See vol. ii. c. xv. p. 229. In defending his own conduct, notwithstanding the unfortunate consequences with which it was attended, Demosthenes seems animated by the true spirit of Pericles. Βελομαι τι κ' παραδέξοι εἴπω; κ' μὲν πρὸς διὸς κ' θεῶν! μηδὲς τὴν ὑπερβολὴν θαυμάσῃ, ἀλλὰ μετ' εὐνοίας ὁ λέγω θεωρησάτω· εἰ γὰρ ἀπασὶ προέβη τα μέλιστα γενεσιεῖναι, κ' προήδεσαν πάντες, κ' σὺ πρῆλγε Αἰσχύν, κ' δειμαστέρῃ, ἔσαν κ' κεκραγῆς, ὅς ἐδὲ ἐφθιγέμε· ὅδε ἕτως ἀποσάτειν τῇ πέλει τῶν ἡ' εἰπὶς ἡ δόξης ἡ προγόνων ἡ τῷ μέλ-
λοντος αἰῶνος εἶχε λόγιον. The beauties of such passages, depending chiefly on collocation of words and sentiments, of which Demosthenes, of all writers, was the greatest master, cannot be translated. The meaning is, "I will venture to say what is contrary to common opinion, and, in the name of the Gods! regard not its extravagance, but examine it with indulgence. Had all of you foreseen what was going to happen, had the consequences of our conduct been manifest, and had you, Æschines, repeatedly proclaimed them with a loud voice, you, who then opened not your mouth, yet the Athenians ought not to have forsaken the cause of Grecian freedom, unless they forsook their glory, their ancestors, and their renown with succeeding ages." The same thought is expressed in language still bolder, after the hearers are prepared for it, by a page of the most animated eloquence: Ἀλλὰ ἔκ εἰσι, ὅπως ἡμαρτετε, ἀνδρες Ἀθηναῖοι, τὸν ὑπὲρ τῆς ἀπαντῶν ἐλευθερίας κ' σωτηρίας κινδύνον ἀραμενοί· ὃ μὰ τῆς ἐν Μαραθῶνι προκινδυνεύσαντας τῶν προγόνων, &c. See the passage, p. 343. He swears by those who fell at Marathon, Platæa, Salamis, and Artemisium, that the Athenians did not err in defending, with unequal fortune, and against superior force, the public safety and liberty. Such passages, when detached, may appear extravagant and gigantic; but, as in the church of St. Peter's, where all is arranged with such admirable symmetry, that no figure appears beyond the natural size, so, in the works of Demosthenes, nothing appears monstrous, because all is great,

stances.

stances of his injustice and lust of power, the orator concludes, “ For such reasons, the senate and people of Athens, emulating the glory of their ancestors, to whom the liberty of Greece was ever dearer than the interest of their particular republic, and humbly revering the gods and heroes, guardians of the Athenian city and territory, whose aid they now implore, have resolved to send to the coast of Bœotia a fleet of two hundred sail, to march to Eleusis with their whole military strength, to dispatch ambassadors to the several states of Greece, and particularly to the Thebans, encouraging them to remain unterrified amidst the dangers which threaten them, and to exert themselves manfully in defence of the common cause, with assurance that the people of Athens, unmindful of old or later differences which have prevailed between the two republics, are determined and ready to support them with all their faculties, their treasures, their navies, and their arms; well knowing, that to contend for pre-eminence with the Greeks is an honourable contest; but to be commanded by a foreigner, and to suffer a Barbarian to wrest the sovereignty from their hands, would tarnish their hereditary glory, and disgrace their country for ever.”

The same undaunted spirit which dictated this decree, attended the exertions of Demosthenes in his embassy to Thebes, in which he triumphed over the intrigues of Amyntas and Clearchus, and over the eloquence of Philon of Byzantium, the emissaries employed by Philip on this important occasion.

Demosthenes persuades the Thebans to join the standard of Athens,

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occasion. The Thebans passed a decree for receiving with gratitude the proffered assistance of Athens; and the Athenian army having soon after taken the field, were admitted within the Theban walls, and treated with all the flattering distinctions of ancient hospitality⁹².

Prepara-
tions on
both sides
for the
battle of
Chæronæa.

Meanwhile Philip having advanced towards the Bœotian frontier, his detached parties were foiled in two rencounters with the confederates. Regardless of these losses, to which, perhaps, he purposely submitted, as necessary stratagems to draw the enemy from their walls, he proceeded with his main body, thirty-two thousand strong, to the plain of Chæronæa. This place was considered by Philip as well adapted to the operations of the Macedonian phalanx; and the ground for his encampment, and afterwards the field of battle, were chosen with equal sagacity; having in view, on one side, a temple of Hercules, whom the Macedonians regarded as the author of their royal house, and the high protector of their fortune; and, on the other, the banks of the Thermodon, a small river flowing into the Cephissus, announced by the oracles of Greece as the destined scene of desolation and woe to their unhappy country⁹³. The generals of the confederate Greeks had been much less careful to avail themselves of the powerful

⁹² Demosthenes, who furnishes the above narrative, avoids dwelling on the following melancholy events, which are related by Diodorus, l. xvi. p. 475, & seqq. Plut. in Alexand. Strabo, l. ix. p. 414. Justin. l. ix. c. iii. & Pausanias Bœotic.

⁹³ Plut. in Vit. Demosth.

sanctions of superstition. Unrestrained by inauspicious sacrifices, the Athenians had left their city at the exhortation of Demosthenes, to wait no other omen but the cause of their country. Regardless of oracles, they afterwards advanced to the ill-fated Thermodon, accompanied by the Thebans, and the scanty reinforcements raised by the islands, and states of Peloponnesus, which had joined their alliance. Their army amounted to thirty thousand men, animated by the noblest cause for which men can fight, but commanded by the Athenians Lyficles and Chares, the first but little, and the second unfavourably, known; and by Theagenes the Theban, a person strongly suspected of treachery; all three creatures of cabal, and tools of faction, slaves of interest or voluptuousness, whose characters (especially as they had been appointed to command the only states whose shame, rather than virtue, yet opposed the public enemy) are alone sufficient to prove that Greece was ripe for ruin.

When the day approached for abolishing the tottering independence of those turbulent republics, which their own internal vices, and the arms and intrigues of Philip, had been gradually undermining for twenty-two years, both armies formed in battle array before the rising of the sun. The right wing of the Macedonians was headed by Philip, who judged proper to oppose in person the dangerous fury of the Athenians. His son Alexander, only nineteen years of age, but surrounded by experienced officers, commanded the left wing, which

Alexander routs the Thebans.

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faced the Sacred Band of the Thebans. The auxiliaries of either army were posted in the centre. In the beginning of the action, the Athenians charged with impetuosity, and repelled the opposing divisions of the enemy; but the youthful ardour of Alexander obliged the Thebans⁹⁴ to retire, the Sacred Band being cut down to a man. The activity of the young prince completed their disorder, and pursued the scattered multitude with his Thessalian cavalry.

Philip de-
feats the
Athe-
nians.

Meantime the Athenian generals, too much elated by their first advantage, lost the opportunity to improve it; for, having repelled the centre and right wing of the Macedonians, except the phalanx, which was composed of chosen men, and immediately commanded by the king, they, instead of attempting to break this formidable body, by attacking it in flank, pressed⁹⁵ forward against the fugitives, the insolent Lysicles exclaiming in vain triumph, "Pursue, my brave countrymen! let us drive the cowards to Macedon." Philip observed this rash folly with contempt, and saying to those around him, "our enemies know not how to conquer," commanded his phalanx, by a rapid evolution, to gain an adjacent eminence, from which they poured down, firm and collected, on the advancing Athenians, whose confidence of success had rendered them totally insensible to danger. But the irresistible shock of the Macedonian spear converted their fury into despair. Above a thou-

⁹⁴ Plutarch. in Alexand. ⁹⁵ Polyæn. Stratagem. l. iv. c. ii.

land fell, two thousand were taken prisoners; the rest escaped by a precipitate and shameful flight. Of the Thebans more were killed than taken. Few of the confederates perished, as they had little share in the action, and as Philip, perceiving his victory to be complete, gave orders to spare the vanquished, with a clemency unusual in that age, and not less honourable to his understanding than his heart; since his humanity thus subdued the minds, and gained the affections, of his conquered enemies⁹⁶.

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According to the Grecian custom, the battle was followed by an entertainment, at which the king, presiding in person, received the congratulations of his friends, and the humble supplications of the Athenian deputies, who craved the bodies of their slain. Their request, which served as an acknowledgment of their defeat, was readily granted; but before they availed themselves of the permission to carry off their dead, Philip, who with his natural intemperance had protracted the entertainment till morning, issued forth with his licentious companions to visit the field of battle; their heads crowned with festive garlands, their minds intoxicated with the insolence of wine and victory; yet the sight of the slaughtered Thebans, which first presented itself to their eyes, and particularly the sacred band of friends and lovers, who lay covered with honourable wounds, on the spot where they had been drawn up to fight, brought back these

Philip visits the field of battle.

⁹⁶ Pausan. Achaic. Diodor. & Justin, ubi supra.

CH A P. insolent spectators to the sentiments of reason and
 XXXVI. humanity. Philip beheld the awful scene with a
 mixture of admiration and pity; and, after an affecting silence, denounced a solemn curse against those who basely suspected the friendship of such brave men to be tainted with criminal and infamous passions ⁹⁷.

His levity
 reprimanded by
 Demades.

But this serious temper of mind did not last long; for having proceeded to that quarter of the field where the Athenians had fought and fallen, the king abandoned himself to all the levity and littleness of the most petulant joy. Instead of being impressed with a deep sense of his recent danger, and with dutiful gratitude to Heaven for the happiness of his escape, and the importance of his victory, Philip only compared the boastful pretensions, with the mean performances of his Athenian enemies; and, struck by this contrast, rehearsed, with the insolent mockery of a buffoon, the pompous declaration of war lately drawn up by the ardent patriotism and too sanguine hopes of Demosthenes. It was on this occasion that the orator Demades at once rebuked the folly, and flattered the ambition of Philip, by asking him, Why he assumed the character of Therites, when fortune assigned him the part of Agamemnon ⁹⁸?

The different treatment of the Athenians and Thebans.

Whatever might be the effect of this sharp reprimand ⁹⁹, it is certain that the king of Macedon indulged not, on any future occasion, a vain

⁹⁷ Plutarch in Pelopid.

⁹⁸ Idem in Demosthen.

⁹⁹ Plutarch ascribes to this smart observation the moderation of Philip's subsequent conduct.

triumph

triumph over the vanquished. When advised by his generals to advance into Attica, and to render himself master of Athens, he only replied, "Have I done so much for glory, and shall I destroy the theatre of that glory¹⁰⁰?" His subsequent conduct corresponded with the moderation of this sentiment. He restored, without ransom, the Athenian prisoners; who, at departing, having demanded their baggage, were also gratified in this particular; the king pleasantly observing, that the Athenians seemed to think he had not conquered them in earnest¹⁰¹. Soon afterwards he dispatched his son Alexander, and Antipater, the most trusted of his ministers, to offer them peace on such favourable terms as they had little reason to expect. They were required to send deputies to the Isthmus of Corinth, where, to adjust their respective contingents of troops for the Persian expedition, Philip purposed assembling, early in the spring, a general convention of all the Grecian states; they were ordered to surrender the isle of Samos, which actually formed the principal station of their fleet, and the main bulwark and defence of all their maritime or insular possessions; but they were allowed to enjoy, unmolested, the Attic territory, with their hereditary form of government, and flattered by the acquisition of Oropus, for which they had so long contended with the unhappy Thebans¹⁰². It was not merely in being

¹⁰⁰ Plutarch in Apophth. ¹⁰¹ Idem, ibid.

¹⁰² Pausanias Boeotic. Diodorus, ubi supra.

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 XXXVI. the indignation of the conqueror. From the trans-
 actions between Macedon and Thebes, in the
 early part of his reign, Philip thought himself en-
 titled to treat that people, not as open and gene-
 rous enemies, whose struggle for freedom deserved
 his clemency, but as faithless and insidious rebels,
 who merited all the severity of his justice. He
 punished the republican party with unrelenting
 rigour; restored the traitors, whom they had ban-
 nished, to the first honours of the republic; and,
 in order to support their government, placed a
 Macedonian garrison in the Theban citadel ¹⁰³.

Causes
 from
 which it
 proceeded.

In his opposite treatment of the two republics,
 Philip, it is probable, was swayed neither by af-
 fection nor hatred; his generosity and his rigour
 were alike artificial, and both directed by his in-
 terest. Besides the different characters of the The-
 bans and Athenians, which rendered the former as
 sensible to the impression of fear, as the latter were
 susceptible of gratitude and esteem, the Thebans
 had too long, and too early, abandoned the cause
 of Greece, and too strenuously exerted themselves
 in establishing the power of Macedon, to acquire
 much reputation by one unsuccessful attempt to
 resist Philip, to which they had been at length
 roused less by their own public spirit or courage,
 than by the zeal and eloquence of Demosthenes.
 The Athenians, on the contrary, who from the
 beginning had opposed the views of this prince,

¹⁰³ Justin. l. ix. c. iv.

though

though with far less prudence and activity than their situation required; who, through the whole course of his reign, had continued to traverse his measures, and to spurn his authority; and who, previously to the last fatal encounter at Chæronæa, had endeavoured to form a general confederacy, and when that proved impossible, had determined, almost unassisted and alone, to resist the common foe, seemed entitled to such gratitude and applause, as compassion bestows on ill-directed valour and unfortunate patriotism; and the rigorous treatment of such a people must have shocked the sentiments, and exasperated the hatred, of every citizen of Greece, who yet retained the faintest tincture of ancient principles, or who was still animated by the smallest spark of public spirit.

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Philip too well understood his interest, thus to tarnish the glory, and risk the fruits of victory, although the daring and imprudent behaviour of the Athenians, after the battle, might have served to justify the harshest measures. The first news of their defeat filled the city with tumult or consternation. But when the disorder ceased, the people shewed themselves disposed to place their whole confidence in arms, none in the mercy of Philip. Upon the motion of Hyperides¹⁰⁴, a decree passed for sending to the Piræus their wives, children, and most valuable effects, together with the sacred images and ornaments of their gods. By the same decree, the rights and freedom of the

Daring
measures
of the
Athenians
after their
defeat.

¹⁰⁴ Plut. in Vita Hyperid.

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city were bestowed on strangers and slaves, and restored to persons declared infamous, on this one condition, that they exerted themselves in the public defence. Demosthenes, with equal success, proposed a decree for repairing the walls and fortifications, a work which, being himself appointed to superintend, he generously accomplished at the expence of his private fortune¹⁰⁵. The orator Lycurgus undertook the more easy task of impeaching the worthless Lysicles, whose misconduct in the day of battle had been the immediate cause of the late fatal disaster. In a discourse calculated to revive the spirit of military enthusiasm, which had anciently animated the Athenians, the speaker thus warmly apostrophised the conscious guilt of the mute and trembling general: "The Athenians have been totally defeated in an engagement; the enemy have erected a trophy to the eternal dishonour of Athens; and Greece is now prepared to receive the detested yoke of servitude. You were our commander on that inglorious day; and still *you* breathe the vital air, enjoy the light of the sun, and appear in our public places, a living monument of the disgrace and ruin of your country." The quick resentment of the hearers supplied the consequence, and the criminal was dragged to execution¹⁰⁶.

Philip's
moderation
in
victory.

Neither the inflammatory decrees, nor the hostile preparations, of Athens, could shake the moderation of Philip, or determine him to alter the

¹⁰⁵ Demosth. de Corona.

¹⁰⁶ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 477.

favour.

favourable terms of accommodation, which he had already proposed by his ambassadors. The patriotic or republican party, headed by the orators just mentioned, breathed hatred and revenge; but, at the intercession of the Areopagus, which on this occasion acted suitably to the fame of its ancient wisdom, the prudent and virtuous Phocion¹⁰⁷ was appointed to the chief command. The discernment of this statesman and general, whose merit had been neglected while it was yet time to perform any essential service, might easily perceive the vanity of attempting to recover the honour of a people, who, antecedently to their defeat by Philip, had been still more fatally subdued by their own pernicious vices. Amidst the important events of the Macedonian war, and amidst the dreadful misfortunes which, in consequence of its melancholy issue, hung over their country, a set of Athenian citizens, distinguished by their rank and fortune, and known by the appellation of the Sixty, from the accidental number of their original institution, daily assembled into a club, where all serious transactions were treated with levity and ridicule, and the time totally dedicated to feasting, gaming, and the sprightly exercises of wit and pleasantry. This detestable society saw¹⁰⁸, without emotion, their countrymen arming for battle, with the most careless indifference they received accounts of their captivity or death; nor did the public calamities in any degree disturb their festi-

Extreme
corruption
of the A-
thenians.

¹⁰⁷ Plutarch in Phocion.¹⁰⁸ Athenæus, l. xiv. p. 614.

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vity, or interrupt, for a moment, the tranquil course of their pleasures. Their fame having reached Macedon, Philip sent them a sum of money, to support the expence of an institution so favourable to his views. But what opinion must Phocion have formed of such an establishment; or how was it possible for any dispassionate man of ordinary prudence to expect, that a republic so totally degenerate, as to foster such wretches within its bosom, could successfully wage war against a vigilant and enterprising enemy?

They determine to accept the terms of peace offered by Philip.

The arguments of the wisest portion of the community for accepting the peace proffered by Philip, were strengthened and confirmed by the return of Demades with the Athenian prisoners taken at Chæronæa, who unanimously blazed forth the praises of their generous conqueror. Ambassadors were accordingly dispatched to the king of Macedon, to accept and ratify the treaty of peace, upon the terms which he had condescended to offer; and the only marks of deference shewn to the violent party, who still clamoured for war, were, that Demochares, who ostentatiously affected a rude boldness of speech against Philip, was named among the ambassadors; and that Demosthenes, the irreconcilable enemy of that prince, was appointed to pronounce the funeral oration in honour of those slain at Chæronæa.

Insolence of Demochares.

Demochares acquitted himself of his commission with that extravagant petulance which naturally flowed from his character; and which, in the Grecian

Grecian commonwealths, too frequently disgraced the decency of public transactions. At their audience of leave, Philip, with less sincerity than politeness, lavished on the ambassadors his usual professions of friendship, and obligingly asked them, if there was any thing farther in which he could gratify the Athenians? "Yes," said Demochares, "hang thyself." The just indignation of all present broke forth against this unprovoked insolence, when Philip, with admirable coolness, silenced the clamour, by saying, "Let this ridiculous brawler depart unmolested;" and then turning to the other ambassadors, "Go, tell your countrymen, that those who can utter such outrages are less just and moderate, than he who can pardon them¹⁰⁹."

The honourable employment conferred on Demosthenes, which shewed that, notwithstanding the unfortunate issue of his counsels, the Athenians still approved his principles and his patriotism, might have been expected to elevate his sentiments and his language to the highest strain of eloquence. But the complexion of the times no longer admitted those daring flights to which he had been accustomed to soar; and the powers of the orator seem to have declined with the fortunes of his country. With too apparent caution he avoids the mention of all recent transactions, and dwells with tiresome minuteness on the ancient, and even fabulous parts, of the Athenian story. One

Oration of Demosthenes in honour of those slain at Chæroneæ.

¹⁰⁹ Seneca de Ira.

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transient flash of light breaks forth towards the end of his discourse, when, commemorating the glory of the slain, he says, that the removal of those zealous republicans from their country was like taking the sun from the world¹¹⁰; a figure bold, yet just; since, after the battle of Chæronæa, there remained no further hopes of resisting the conqueror—the dignity of freedom was for ever lost, and the gloom of night and tyranny descended and thickened over Greece¹¹¹.

¹¹⁰ Ὡς περ γὰρ εἰ τις ἐκ τῆ καθέστηκτος κοσμοῦ το φῶς ἐξέλαιτο, δυσχερὲς καὶ χαλεπὸς ἅπας ὁ λειπομένους ἡμῖν εἰς· ἔτω τῶνδε ἀνδρῶν ἀναιρέσεων, ἐν σκοτει καὶ πολλῇ δυσκλείᾳ πᾶς ὁ πρῶτος ζήλος τῶν Ἑλλήνων γέγονε. p. 155. “For as if light were taken from the world, the remaining life of mortals would be involved in difficulties and misery; so by the death of those warriors, the original glory of Greece was buried in darkness and ignominy.” Of this discourse, which Libanius denies to be genuine, many passages are corrupt, and many interpolated. The general debility of the whole may be explained by the observation in the text, without having recourse to the defence of Wolfius: “Oratorem Libanius Demosthenis esse negat ut vilem & imbecillum omnino. Quod quis miretur, cum & argumentum sit imbecille?” Demosthen. edit. Wolf. p. 152.

¹¹¹ Hic dies universæ Græciæ, et gloriam dominationis, et vetustissimam libertatem finivit. Justin. l. ix. c. iii. Demosthenes, Diodorus, Strabo, and Pausanias, all express the same sentiments, and nearly in the same words.

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Liberal Spirit of the Macedonian Government.—Philip appointed General of the Greeks.—Rebellion of Illyria.—Assassination of Philip.—His Character.—Accession of Alexander.—His Expedition against the Illyrians and Triballi.—He passes the Danube.—Rebellion in Greece.—Destruction of Thebes—Heroism of Timoclea.—Alexander crosses the Hellespont.—State of the Persian Empire.—Battle of the Granicus.—Siege of Miletus and Halicarnassus.—Bold Adventure of two Macedonian Soldiers.—Alexander's judicious Plan of War.—Arts by which he secured his Conquests.—The Battle of Issus.—The Virtues of Alexander expand with his Prosperity.

THE Greeks acknowledged, with reluctance and sorrow, that by the decisive victory of Chæronæa, Philip became master of their country¹. But we should form a very erroneous notion of the Macedonian government, if we compared

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Liberal
spirit of
the Macedonian go-
vernment.

¹ Demosth. Æschin. Diodor. Plutarch. Arrian, passim. I shall cite only the words of Strabo: “Χαιρώνεια δὲ ὕπαρ Φιλίππου ὁ Ἀμύντα μεγάλῳς νικῶντας Ἀθηναίους τε καὶ Βοιωτὰς καὶ Κορινθίους, κατεστῆ τῆς Ἑλλάδος κύριος.” And Chæronæa, where Philip, the son of Amyntas, having conquered the Athenians, Bœotians, and Corinthians, in a great battle, rendered himself master of Greece.” Strab. Geograph. l. ix. p. 414.

it with the despotism of the East, or the absolute dominion of many European monarchs. The authority of Philip, even in his hereditary realm, was modelled on that admirable system of power and liberty, which distinguished and ennobled the *policies* of the heroic ages². He administered the religion, decided the differences, and commanded the valour, of soldiers and freemen³. Personal merit entitled him to hold the sceptre, which, being derived from Jove, could not long be swayed by unworthy hands. The superiority of his abilities, the vigilant and impartial justice of his administration, formed the main pillars of his prerogative; since, according to the principles and feelings of the Macedonians, he who infringed the rights of his subjects⁴, ceased from that moment to be a king.

Nature and
extent of
Philip's
authority
in Greece.

Having effected the conquest of Greece, the prudence of Philip could not be supposed ambitious of introducing into that country more severe maxims of government than those which prevailed

² When Alexander, intoxicated with prosperity, claimed too exalted honours, he was told by Callisthenes the philosopher, “Οἱ πρόγονοι ἐξ Ἀργεῖ εἰς Μακεδониαν ἦλθον, καὶ οὕτως ἄλλα νόμῳ Μακεδόνων ἀρχοῦσι διατελεσαν. Your ancestors came from Argos to Macedon, and continued there, governing the Macedonians, not by force, but by law.” Arrian. Exped. Alexand. p. 87.

³ In capital cases, says Curtius, the soldiers judged in time of war, the citizens in time of peace. He then adds, “Nihil potestas regum valebat nisi prius valuisset auctoritas;” scilicet populi. Curtius, l. vi. c. ix. p. 441.

⁴ A very mean subject literally told Philip, “If you refuse to do me justice, cease to be a king.” Plut. Apophth.

in Macedon. He affected, on the contrary, to preserve inviolate the ancient forms of the republican constitution, and determined to govern the Greeks by the same policy with which he had subdued them. While Macedonian garrisons kept possession of Thermopylæ and the other strong holds of Greece, the faithful and active partisans of Philip controuled the resolutions, and directed the measures, of each particular republic. The superintendence of the sacred games, as well as of the Delphic temple, rendered him the only visible head of the national religion: in consequence of the double right of presiding and voting in the Amphiſtyonic council, he appeared in the character of supreme civil magistrate of Greece; and his illustrious victory at Chæronæa over the only communities that opposed his greatness, pointed him out as the general best entitled to conduct the military force of Greece and Macedon in the long-projected invasion of Persia; an office which, as he might have assumed it without blame, he therefore solicited with applause from the impartial suffrages of the people⁵.

That this condescension must have been highly flattering to the vanity of the Greeks, appears from the transactions at Corinth, where Philip, the year following the battle of Chæronæa, had assembled a general convention of the Amphiſtyonic states⁶. In this assembly, Dius of Ephesus represented, with affecting energy, the vexations and

Philip
named
general
of the
Greeks.
Olymp.
cx. 4.
A. C. 337.

⁵ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 556. Τῶν Ἑλλήνων ἐλπίσαντες αὐτὸν σφαιτεροῦ, &c.

⁶ Diodor. l. xvi. p. 556.

oppression

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oppression which the feeble colonies of Asia daily experienced from the rapacious cruelty of the Persian satraps. The general voice of the assembly approved his complaint, while they recollected, with indignation, the continual outrages of a people who had anciently invaded their country, insulted their religion, burned their temples, and, not satisfied with these acts of vengeance, had reduced and oppressed their colonies, and uninterruptedly excited and nourished those cruel animosities which had long filled every part of Greece with sedition and blood⁷. Philip had private wrongs to urge against the Persians, whose hatred and jealousy had, on several occasions, thwarted his measures and disturbed his government. Yet he insisted chiefly on their public injuries, and notorious enmity to the whole Grecian name, the honour of which could only be redeemed by a successful expedition into Asia.

Amount
of their
forces.

This expedition was determined with universal consent. Philip was appointed general of the confederacy; and (although the Lacedæmonians suddenly absented themselves from the convention) when the several states came to ascertain the contingent of troops which they could respectively raise, the whole, exclusive of the Macedonians, amounted to two hundred and twenty thousand foot, and fifteen thousand horse⁸; a prodigious force, of which the domestic dissensions of the Greeks had hitherto, perhaps, prevented them

⁷ Isocrat. Orat. ad Philip.

⁸ Justin. l. ix. c. v.

from

from forming an adequate notion. On no former occasion had the several republics appeared so thoroughly united in one common cause; never had they shewn themselves so sensible of their combined strength; never had they testified such general alacrity to take the field, or such unlimited confidence in the abilities of their commander.

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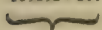
It belongs to the biographers of the king of Macedon, to examine the circumstances of the bloody transaction which clouded this glorious prospect. In the general history of Greece, it is sufficient to mention, that Philip, having dispatched Parmenio with a body of troops to protect the Asiatic colonies, was prevented from immediately following that commander by an insurrection of the Illyrian tribes⁹. This unseasonable diversion from the greatest enterprise of his reign, was rendered more formidable by the domestic discord which shook the palace of Philip. A spirit less proud and jealous than that of Olympias, mother of Alexander, might have been justly provoked by the continual infidelities of her husband, who, whether at home or abroad, in peace or in war, never ceased to augment the number of his wives or concubines¹⁰. The generous mind of Alexander must naturally have espoused the cause of his mother, although his own interest had not been deeply concerned in preventing Philip from continually giving him so many new rivals to the throne. The young prince defended the rights of Olympias

The expedition retarded by a rebellion in Illyria, and domestic dissensions in Macedon. Olymp. cxi. 1. A. C. 336.

⁹ Diodor. ad Olymp.

¹⁰ Athenæus, l. xiii.

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and his own, with the impetuosity natural to his character; at the nuptials of Philip with Cassandra, the niece of Attalus, one of his generals and favourites, an open rupture broke out between the imperious father and his more haughty son¹¹; and the latter, concluding all those to be his own friends who were enemies to the former, sought refuge among the rebellious Illyrians, who were already in arms against their sovereign.

Philip ex-
tricates
himself
from these
difficul-
ties.

Olymp.
cxi. 1.

A. C. 336.

The dexterity of Philip extricated him from these difficulties. Having conquered the Illyrians, he softened Alexander by assuring him that his illustrious merit, which was alike admired in Greece and Macedon, had not escaped the anxious vigilance of a parent, who, by giving him many rivals to the throne, had only given him an opportunity of surpassing them all in glory and in the merited affection of the Macedonians¹². Soothed by this condescension, Olympias and her son again appeared at court with the distinction due to their rank; and to announce and confirm this happy reconciliation with his family, Philip married his beloved daughter Cleopatra to the king of Epirus, maternal uncle of Alexander; and celebrated the nuptials by a magnificent festival which lasted several days, during which the Greeks and Macedonians vied with each other in shewing their obsequious respect towards their common general and master.

Is assassi-
nated in
going to
the theatre.

Amidst the tumultuous amusements of the festivity, Philip often appeared in public with un-

¹¹ Plutarch. in Alexand.

¹² Plut. Apophth.

guarded confidence in the fidelity and attachment of all his subjects: but proceeding one day from the palace to the theatre, he was stabbed to the heart by Pausanias ¹³, a Macedonian; whether the assassin was stimulated merely by private resentment, or prompted by the ill-appeased rage of Olympias, or instigated to commit this atrocity by the Persian satraps; which last is asserted by Alexander ¹⁴, who alleged the assassination of his father among his reasons for invading the Persian empire.

Thus fell Philip of Macedon, in the forty-seventh year of his age and twenty-fourth of his reign; the first prince whose life and actions history hath described with such regular accuracy, and circumstantial fulness, as render his administration a matter of instruction to succeeding ages. With a reach of foresight and sagacity peculiar to himself, he united all the prominent features of the Grecian character, valour, eloquence, address, flexibility to vary his conduct without changing his purpose, the most extraordinary powers of application and perseverance, of cool combination and ardent execution. Intercepted in the middle of his career by the hand of an assassin, he was prevented from undertaking the justest and noblest design of his reign; a design which he had long meditated, and in which his near prospect of success promised to reward the labours and dangers of his toilsome life. Had not his days been shortened

His character.

¹³ Diodor. & Justin. ubi supra.

¹⁴ Arrian. l. ii. c. iii. & Curtius, l. iv. c. i.

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by a premature death, there is good reason to believe that he might have subdued the Persian empire; an enterprize more dazzling, but less difficult, than the exploits which he had already achieved. Had that event taken place, the arduous undertakings of his long and successful reign would have been ennobled and illuminated by the splendour of extensive foreign conquest; Philip would have reached the height of such renown as is obtained by the habits of activity, vigilance, and fortitude in the pursuit of unbounded greatness; and, in the opinion of posterity, would perhaps have surpassed the glory of all kings and conquerors, who either preceded or followed him. Yet, even on this supposition, there is not any man of sense and probity, who, if he allows himself time for serious reflection, would purchase the imagined grandeur and prosperity of the king of Macedon, at the price of his artifices and crimes; and to a philosopher, who considered either the means by which he had obtained his triumphs, or the probable consequences of his dominion over Greece and Asia, the busy ambition of this mighty conqueror would appear but a deceitful scene of splendid misery.

Difficulties
attending
the accession
of
Alexander
to the Ma-
cedonian
throne.
Olymp.
cxi. 1.
A.C. 336.

A prince who is his own minister, and almost the sole depositary of his own secrets, commonly leaves an arduous task for the labours of his successor. This difficulty presented itself to Alexander; but it was not the only circumstance that rendered his situation difficult. The regular order
of

of succession had never been clearly established in Macedon, and was, in some measure, incompatible with the spirit of royal government, which, as then generally understood, required such qualities and accomplishments in the first magistrate, as could not be expected from a promiscuous line of hereditary princes. The numerous wives of Philip had, however, been most fruitful in female offspring. Nor had Alexander much to apprehend from the rivalry of his brothers, since Ptolemy, born of Arsinoë, and afterwards king of Egypt, was reputed to be the son of Lagus, to whom Philip had married Arsinoë, while she was with child by himself; and Aridæus, the son of Philina, who, for six years after the death of Alexander, held a pageant royalty in the East, by the terror of his brother's name, and through the discordant ambition of his lieutenants, possessed not vigour of mind eagerly to dispute the succession. But Alexander's title was contested by Amyntas, son of Perdiccas, the elder brother of Philip, in whose name the last-mentioned prince originally administered the government, till the tender age of Amyntas being rejected by the Macedonians, Philip so little feared the revival of his pretensions to the throne, that he had given him his daughter Cyna in marriage. This new advantage strengthened the claim of Amyntas, which, it was probable, would be warmly supported by Attalus, a bold and enterprising commander, the personal enemy of Olympias and her son, of whom the former had recently put to death his kins-

woman

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woman Cleopatra, with shocking circumstances of cruelty. Alexander privately took measures with his friends for crushing those dangerous enemies¹⁵; and, being acknowledged king of Macedon, hastened into Greece to reap the fruits of his father's labours, which might be lost by delay.

He is acknowledged general of the Greeks in an assembly of the states at Corinth.

In his journey thither, he experienced the perfidious inconstancy of the Thessalians, whom he chastised with proper severity; and having assembled the deputies of the states at Corinth, he was invested with the same honours¹⁶ which had been conferred on his predecessor. During his residence in that city there happened an incident which more clearly displays the character of Alexander, than can be done by the most elaborate description. Curiosity led him to visit Diogenes

the cynic, whose singular manners and mode of life have been mentioned on a former occasion. He found him basking in the sun¹⁷, and, having made himself known as the master of Macedon and Greece, asked the philosopher what he could do to oblige him? "Stand from between me and the sun," was the answer of the cynic: upon which the king observed to his attendants, "that he would choose to be Diogenes¹⁸ if he were not Alexander."

The observation was natural and sublime; since, under the most dissimilar veils of external circumstances and pursuits, their characters concealed a real resemblance. Both pos-

His character displayed in his conversation with Diogenes the cynic.

¹⁵ Diodorus, l. xvii. 2, & seqq. & Justin. xi. 1, & seqq.

¹⁶ Idem, *ibid.*

¹⁷ Pausan. l. ii. p. 88.

¹⁸ Laertius in Vit. Diogen.

fessed that proud erect spirit which disdains authority, spurns controul, and aspires to domineer over fortune. But, by diminishing the number of his wants, Diogenes found, in his tub, that independence of mind, which Alexander, by the unbounded gratification of his desires, could not attain on the imperial throne of Persia.

Alexander, having returned to Macedon, prepared for his eastern expedition by diffusing the terror of his name among the northern Barbarians. The Illyrians and Triballi, mindful of the injuries of Philip, had hastily taken arms to oppose, ere it became too late, the youth and inexperience of his son. But the discernment of the young prince readily perceived the danger of leaving such formidable enemies on his frontier. With a well-appointed army, he marched from Amphipolis, and, leaving the city Philippi and Mount Orbelus on the left, arrived in ten days at the principal pass of Mount Hæmus, which led into the territory of the Triballi. There he found a new, and not less formidable enemy. The independent tribes of Thrace, having embraced the cause of the Triballi, had seized an eminence commanding the pass; and, instead of a breastwork, had fortified themselves with their carriages or waggons, which they purposed to roll down on the Macedonians. To elude this unusual attack, Alexander commanded such of his troops as could not conveniently open their ranks, and allow free issue to the intended violence, to fall flat on the ground, and carefully close their shields, that the descending

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His expedition
against the
Illyrians
and Triballi.
Olymp.
cxi. 2.
A.C. 335.

He defeats
the independent
tribes of
Thrace.

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waggon's might harmless bound over them. In consequence of this contrivance, the hostile artillery was exhausted in vain. Alexander then attacked the Thracians with admirable order and celerity. Fifteen hundred fell; their swiftness and knowledge of the country saved the greater number. The prisoners, women, and booty, were sent for sale to the maritime cities on the Euxine ¹⁹.

The Triballi take refuge in Peucé.

Alexander having intrusted this business to Lyfania's and Philotas, passed the mountains, and pursued the Triballi. By galling them with his bowmen and slingers, he gradually forced them from their fastnesses, and defeated a powerful body of their warriors encamped on the woody banks of the Lyginus, distant three days march from the Danube. The remainder of the nation, conducted by the valour of their chieftain Syrmus, and reinforced by a numerous band of Thracians, took refuge in Peucé, an island in the Danube, defended by abrupt and rugged banks, surrounded by deep and foaming streams. Alexander, though he had just received some ships of war from Byzantium, judged it too hazardous to assault the island; and the hostile appearance of the Getæ on the northern bank, furnished him with an honourable pretence for declining the siege of Peucé. On the margin of the Danube, that audacious people had drawn up four thousand horse, and above ten thousand foot, showing, by their countenance and demeanour, a determined resolution to oppose the landing of an enemy. Provoked by those signs of

Alexander passes the Danube;

¹⁹ Arrian. Alexand. Expedit. l. i. p. 2, & seqq.

defiance, and animated by the glory of passing the greatest of all European rivers, and that which was surrounded with the greatest and most warlike nations, Alexander filled the hides used in encampment with straw and other buoyant materials, and collected all the boats employed by the natives of those parts in fishing, commerce, or piracy. Amidst the darkness of the ensuing night, he thus transported fifteen hundred cavalry, and four thousand infantry, to that part of the opposite bank, which was covered with high and thick corn. At the dawn of day, he commanded his foot to march through those rich fields ²⁰ with transversed spears; while they remained concealed in the corn, the cavalry followed them; but as soon as they emerged into the naked plain, the horse advanced to the front, and both suddenly presenting an irresistible object of terror, the Getæ abandoned their post, and fled to their city, which was four miles distant. There, they at first purposed to make a vigorous defence; but perceiving that Alexander cautiously skirted the river, to avoid the danger of an ambush, reflecting on his astonishing boldness in passing, without a bridge, the Danube in one night, and beholding the impenetrable firmness of his phalanx, and the irresistible impetuosity of his cavalry ²¹, they regarded farther opposition

as

²⁰ Πλαγίαις ταις σαρυσσαις επικλιναντες τον σιτον. The spears were transversed, not only for the purpose of concealment, "but to make a road through the corn."

²¹ Φεβρα δε της φαλαγγος η ξυγκλησκις, βιαια δε η των ιππεων εμβολη, Arrian, p. 4. Alexander knew the proper use of cavalry,

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as vain, forsook their habitations, and retired precipitately, with their wives and children, into the northern desert ²².

receives the
submission
of the
neigh-
bouring
nations.

The Macedonians entered, and sacked the town. The spoil was entrusted to Philip and Meleager; Alexander, mindful of so many favours, returned sacrifices of thanks to Jupiter, Hercules, and the god of the Danube; and, encamping on the northern bank of the river, received very submissive embassies from the surrounding nations. Even Symus, the intrepid leader of the Triballi, sent propitiatory presents, and readily obtained pardon from a prince, who could admire virtue in a Barbarian, and an enemy ²³.

Arrogance
of the Cel-
tæ.

Necessity alone compelled Alexander to carry his arms into those inhospitable regions. Animated by an ambition to subdue the Asiatic plains, he turned with contempt from bleak heaths and barren mountains, not deigning to chastise the boastful arrogance of the Celtæ. The Boii and Senones, Celtic or German tribes (for those nations were often confounded by the Greeks), sent ambassadors to Alexander, who, observing their lofty stature and haughty spirit, endeavoured to humble them by asking, “what, of all things, they most feared?” not doubting, they would an-

which was so little understood in the last century, that the three ranks fired successively before the charge; each, after firing, passing, by a carocol, behind the rest. Gustavus Adolphus allowed only his first rank to fire; which was doubtless a great improvement, and paved the way for reducing the service of cavalry to its true principle, what Arrian calls “*ἡ βία ἀμείνων*.”

²² Arrian, l. i. p. 3, & seqq.

²³ Idem, *ibid*.

swer,

swer, "yourself;" but they replied, "the fall of heaven." The king declared them his friends and allies, but whispered to those around him, "the Celtæ are an arrogant people²⁴." Could we admit the truth of this narrative, and believe that ambassadors were really sent to Alexander by the nations inhabiting the northern recesses of the Ionian gulph, it would be interesting to observe the early character and first proceedings of a people, who were destined to subdue the conquerors of the Macedonian empire.

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In his return towards Pella, Alexander marched through the friendly country of the Pæonians, where he received the unpleasant intelligence that the Illyrian tribes were in arms, headed by Clitus, son of Bardyllis, the hereditary foe of Macedon. Glaucias, king of the Taulantii, prepared to join the arms of Clitus; the Autariadæ, likewise an Illyrian nation, had determined to obstruct the march of Alexander. Amidst these difficulties, he was encouraged by Langarus, chief of the Agrians, a warlike tribe inhabiting the ridges of Mount Hæmus. Even in the life-time of Philip, Langarus²⁵ had discerned the superior merit of his son, with whom he had early entered into a confidential correspondence. Conducted by the activity of Langarus, the Agrian targeteers, who thenceforth had an important share in all the Macedonian victories, invaded the country of the Autariadæ. Their ravages were equally rapid and destructive; the Au-

Alexander
reduces
the Taulantii, and
other Illyrian tribes.

²⁴ Arrian, l. i. p. 5. & Strabo, l. vii. p. 208 & 209.

²⁵ Λαγγαρος . . . και Φιλίππου ζώντος ασπαζόμενος Αλεξάνδρου
ἐν ἡλικίᾳ, καὶ ἰδίᾳ ἐπειστεύσει παρ' αὐτοῦ. Arrian, p. 5.

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tariadæ, broken by domestic calamity, or alarmed by private danger, abandoned the design of co-operating with the enemies of Alexander. That prince thus advanced without opposition to Pellion, the principal strong-hold of the Illyrians. His army encamped on the banks of the Eordaicus. The enemy were posted on the adjacent mountains, and concealed among thick woods, purposing to attack the Macedonians by a sudden and united assault. But their courage failed them in the moment of execution. Not daring to wait the approach of the phalanx, they precipitately retreated to their city, leaving behind them the horrid vestiges of their bloody superstition, three boys, three maids, and as many black rams, which, having just sacrificed, they wanted time to remove²⁶.

Meanwhile Glaucias, king of the Taulantii, approached with a great force²⁷ to relieve Pellion, and assist his ally. Alexander had dispatched Philotas to forage at the head of a strong body of cavalry. Glaucias attempted to intercept and cut off this detachment. Alexander, leaving part of his army to awe Pellion, marched to the assistance of Philotas; Clitus reinforced Glaucias; a decisive action thus seemed inevitable, if the thickness of lofty forests, and the intricacies of winding mountains, had afforded a proper scene for a general engagement. The Barbarians excelled in knowledge of the country; the Macedonians in

²⁶ Arrian, p. 5.

²⁷ Μετα πολλῆς δύσεως. Idem, p. 6. Neither Thrace nor Illyria were populous in those days; but as every man was a soldier, the princes of those countries often brought numerous armies into the field.

skill and courage. The war was widely diffused, and ably supported. But the discipline of Alexander finally prevailed. By surprise, by stratagem, by the terror of his military engines, which destroyed at a distance, and by such prompt and skilful manœuvres²⁸ as had never been before seen, on the banks of the Apfus²⁹ and Erigonè, he totally dispersed this immense cloud of Barbarians. Many were slain, and many made captive; a remnant, having burnt their city, which they despaired being able to defend, sought refuge among the Taulantian mountains³⁰.

Meanwhile a report circulated in Greece, that Alexander had perished in Illyria; and as men readily *believe* that which their interests make them *wish*³¹, this vague rumour was greedily embraced by the partisans of Grecian independence. The Athenian demagogues resumed their usual boldness; the Lacedæmonians already fancied themselves heading the revolt³²; but the first acts of rebellion were committed by the Thebans, who, having secretly recalled their exiles, treacherously³³

Rebellion
in Greece.
Olymp.
cxi. 2.
A. C. 335.

²⁸ These are laboriously described by Arrian, p. 6. who, it must be acknowledged, appears sometimes too fond of displaying his skill in tactics.

²⁹ Otherwise called the Eordæicus.

³⁰ Arrian, p. 7.

³¹ Οὐ γινώσκοντες τὰ ὄντα, τὰ μάλιστα καθ' ἡδονὴν σφισιν εἰκαζόν.

"Not knowing the truth, hope regulated their conjectures."
Idem, p. 8.

³² The Lacedæmonians, says Arrian, were γῶμαις ἀφειρηκότες,
"revolted in their minds."

³³ They seized them without the garrison, ἅδεν ὑποτοπησαντας πολέμιον, "suspecting no hostility."

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murdered Amyntas and Timolaus, commanders of the Cadmæa, and prepared to expel the Macedonian garrison from that fortress.

Destruction of
Thebes.
Olymp.
cxi. 2.

A. C. 335.

Alexander, when apprised of these proceedings, relinquished the pursuit of the Barbarians, descended by rapid marches along the western frontier of Macedon, traversed Theffaly, entered Bœotia, and in the space of fourteen days after his receiving the first news of the rebellion, besieged and demolished Thebes. The decisive boldness of this measure has been highly extolled by historians, because nothing could have a more direct tendency to quash the seditious spirit of the Greeks, than the rapid punishment of Thebes, which at once filled the neighbouring cities with pity and terror. A spectacle of that dreadful kind was necessary, it has been said, to secure the future tranquillity of Greece and Macedon, and to enable Alexander to undertake his Persian expedition, without the danger of being interrupted by rebellions in Europe³⁴. But, notwithstanding this

³⁴ Plut. Diodor. Justin. Among the moderns, Mably sur les Græcs, and the learned author of the Examen des Historiens d'Alexandre, who says, p. 46. "Alexandre devoit assurer sa domination dans la Grèce par quelque coup d'éclat, avant que de passer en Asie; la revolte de Thebes lui presenta une occasion favorable à ses vues." Yet Arrian, whose narrative was copied from the relation of eye-witnesses, expresses, thrice in the same page, the reluctance of Alexander to attack the Thebans. *Εκδιδως επι τοις Θηβαις τριβην, ει μεταγνοτες επι τοις κακως γνωσμενοις, πρεσβευσαιντο παρ' αυτον.* And again, *Επι γαρ τοις Θηβαις δια φιλιας ελθειν μαλλον τι η δια κινδυνε ηθελε.* And still to the same purpose, *Αλεξανδρος δε εδω ως τη πολει προσεβαλει.* Arrian, p. 8.

sagacious

sagacious reflection, it appears that the destruction of Thebes was the effect, not of policy, but of obstinacy and accident. In approaching that unfortunate city, Alexander repeatedly halted, to allow the insurgents time to repent of their rashness. The wiser part of the Thebans proposed to embrace the opportunity of sending ambassadors to crave his pardon. But the exiles and authors of the sedition encouraged the multitude to persevere; and instead of shewing remorse for their past crimes, sent forth their cavalry and light infantry, who assaulted and slew several of the Macedonian outguards³⁵.

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Exasperated by these insults, Perdiccas, commander of an advanced party, attacked the Theban wall, without waiting the orders of Alexander. A breach was speedily effected; the brigade of Perdiccas was followed by that of Amyntas, son of Andromenes; but both were so warmly received by the enemy, that Alexander saw the necessity of reinforcing them, lest they should be surrounded and cut off. The Thebans were then repelled in their turn; but soon rallying, beat back the assailants, and pursued them with disordered ranks. Alexander then seized the decisive moment of advancing with a close phalanx. His assault was irresistible. The Thebans fled amain; and such was their trepidation, that having entered their gates, they neglected to shut them against the pursuers. The Macedonians, and their Greek auxiliaries, thus rushed tumultuously into the place.

The occasion and circumstances of that event.

³⁵ Arrian, p. 8, & seqq.

A dread-

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the Greek
auxilia-
ries.

A dreadful slaughter ensued. The Phocians, Orchomenians, and Plataeans, rejoiced at gaining an opportunity to gratify their implacable resentment against Thebes. The greater part of the citizens, exceeding thirty thousand in number³⁶, were either put to the sword or dragged into captivity. A feeble remnant escaped to Athens. The ancient city of Cadmus was rased to the ground; but the citadel was still garrisoned by Macedonian troops, and long maintained as a convenient post for over-awing the adjacent territory.

A few acts
of mercy,
owing to
Alexan-
der.

The severities exercised against Thebes were reluctantly permitted by Alexander, at the instigation of his Grecian auxiliaries³⁷. The few acts of forbearance or mercy, which appeared in this lamentable transaction, flowed from the humanity of his own nature. By his particular orders, the house and family of Pindar were saved from the general desolation. He commanded likewise, that the sacred families should be spared, as well as those connected with Macedon by the ties of hospitality; and as he is the only great conqueror who built many more towns than he destroyed, he took care that the demolition of Thebes should be immediately followed by the restoration of Orchomenus and Plataea. Even the gloomiest events of his reign were distinguished by some flashes of light,

³⁶ According to the lowest computation, Thebes at that time contained above thirty thousand citizens. Comp. Diodor. Plut. ibid. Ælian. Var. Hist. l. xiii. c. vii. Agatharchid. apud Phot. Bibl. 1337.

³⁷ Diodor. l. xvii. p. 569.

that

that displayed his magnanimity. It happened in the sack of Thebes, that a band of fierce Thracians broke into the house of Timoclea, an illustrious Theban matron, the ornament of her sex. The soldiers plundered her house; their brutal commander violated her person. Having gratified his lust, he was next stimulated by avarice, and demanded her gold and silver. She conducted him to a garden, and shewed him a well, into which she pretended to have thrown her most valuable treasure. With blind avidity, he stooped to grasp it, while the woman, being behind, pushed him headlong into the cistern, and covered him with stones. Timoclea was seized by the soldiers, and carried in chains to Alexander. Her firm gait, and intrepid aspect, commanded the attention of the conqueror. Having learned her crime, Alexander asked her, "Who she was, that could venture to commit so bold a deed?" "I am," replied she, "the sister of Theagenes, who fell at Chæronæa, fighting against Philip in defence of Grecian freedom." Alexander admired both her action and her answer, and desired her to depart free with her children³⁸. While Alexander returned towards Macedon, he received many congratulatory embassies from the Greeks. Those affected most friendship in their speeches, who had most enmity in their hearts. The Athenians sent to deprecate his wrath against themselves, and to excuse their compassionate treatment of the Theban fugitives. Alexander demanded the persons of Demosthenes,

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XXXVII.Heroism
of Timo-
clea.Alexander
receives
the con-
gratula-
tory em-
bassies of
the
Greeks.³⁸ Plut. de Vit. Alexand. p. 7.

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Lycurgus, Hyperides, and five other orators, to whose inflammatory speeches he ascribed the seditious spirit that had recently prevailed in Athens. An assembly was immediately summoned to deliberate on this demand; and a decree unanimously passed for trying the orators accused by Alexander, and for inflicting on them such punishment as their offences should appear to merit. This pretended forwardness in the Athenians to avenge his quarrel, was highly agreeable to Alexander. The artful decree, which was immediately transmitted to him, was rendered still more acceptable, by being delivered by Demades, an avowed friend to Macedon, whom the party of Demosthenes bribed with five talents to undertake this useful service³⁹. Amidst the various embassies to the king, the Spartans alone preserved a fullen, or magnanimous silence. Alexander treated them with real, or well-affected contempt; and, without deigning to require their assistance, prepared for the greatest enterprise that ever was undertaken by the Grecian confederacy.

Transac-
tions in
Macedon,
previous
to Alex-
ander's
expedition
to the East.
Olymp.
cxi. i.
A. C. 334.

The arrival of the army in Macedon was celebrated with all the pomp of an elegant superstition. A faithful image of the Olympic solemnity was exhibited in the ancient city of Ægæ. Continual games and sacrifices were performed in Diom, during the space of nine days, in honour of the

³⁹ The circumstances of this transaction are differently related by all the authors who mention it. Compare Diodorus, l. xvii. p. 498. Æschin. in Ctesiphont. Plut. in Vit. Alexand. & Arrian, l. i. p. 11. In military affairs Arrian's authority stands unrivalled; but Æschines, a contemporary orator, must have been better informed concerning the civil transactions of the Athenians.

Muses. Alexander entertained at his table the ambassadors of the Grecian states, together with the principal officers of his army, whether Greeks or Macedonians. In the interval of public representations, he discoursed with his confidential friends concerning the important expedition which chiefly occupied his thoughts. Parmenio and Antipater, the most respected of his father's counsellors, exhorted him not to march into the East, until by marriage, and the birth of a son, he had provided a successor to the monarchy. But the ardent patriotism of Alexander disdained every personal consideration. He remembered that he was elected general of the Greeks, and that he commanded the invincible troops of his father ⁴⁰.

Having entrusted to Antipater the affairs of Greece and Macedon, and committed to that general an army of above twenty thousand men ⁴¹, to maintain domestic tranquillity in those countries, he departed early in the spring, at the head of above five thousand horse, and somewhat more than thirty thousand infantry ⁴². In twenty days march, he arrived at Seftos, on the Hellespont. From thence the army was conveyed to Asia, in an hundred and sixty gallies, and probably a still greater number of transports. The armament landed without opposition on the Asiatic coast; the Per-

Alexander crosses the Hellespont with his army. Olymp. cxi. 3. A.C. 334.

⁴⁰ Diodor. l. xvii. p. 499.

⁴¹ Diodorus, who enters into some detail on this subject, says, twelve thousand infantry, and eleven thousand five hundred cavalry.

⁴² Arrian, p. 12.

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fians, though long ago apprised of the intended invasion, having totally neglected the defence of their western frontier.

State of
the Per-
sian em-
pire.

The causes of this negligence resulted, in some degree perhaps, from the character of the prince, but still more from that of the nation. Codomannus had been raised by assassinations and intrigues to the throne of Persia, about the same time that Alexander succeeded his father Philip. The first year of his reign had been employed in stifling domestic rebellion, in securing, and afterwards in displaying, the fruits of victory. This prince assumed the appellation of Darius, but could not recal the principles or manners which distinguished his countrymen, during the reign of the first monarch of that name. In the space of about two hundred and thirty years, the Persians had been continually degenerating from the virtues which characterise a poor and warlike nation, without acquiring any of those arts and improvements which usually attend peace and opulence. Their empire, as extended by Darius Hystaspes, still embraced the most valuable portion of Asia and Africa. The revenue paid in money was still estimated, as during the reign of that monarch, at fourteen thousand five hundred and sixty Eubœic talents. Immense treasures had been accumulated in Damascus, Arbela, Susa, Persopolis, Ecbatan, and other great cities of the empire. The revenue paid in kind cannot be appreciated; but such was the extraordinary opulence of this great monarchy, that the conquests of Alexander are supposed to have

have given him an income of sixty millions sterling⁴³; a sum which will admit allowance for exaggeration, and still appear sufficiently great.

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Although the extravagance and vices of Susa, Babylon, and other imperial cities, corresponded to the extent and wealth of the monarchy, yet the Persians were prepared for destruction rather by their ignorance of the arts of peace and war, than by their effeminacy and luxury. The provinces, moreover, had ceased to maintain any regular communication with the capital, or with each other. The standing military force proved insufficient to keep in awe the distant satraps, or viceroys. The ties of a common religion and language, or the sense of a public interest, had never united into one system this discordant mass of nations, which was ready to crumble into pieces at the touch of an invader. When to these unfavourable circumstances we join the reflection, that under the younger Cyrus, twelve thousand Greeks baffled the arms, and almost divided the empire of Persia, we shall not find much reason to admire the magnanimity of Alexander in undertaking his eastern expedition; unless we are at the same time apprised, that Darius was deemed a brave and generous prince, beloved by his Persian subjects, and assisted by the valour of fifty thousand Greek mercenaries⁴⁴.

Circumstances which prepared it for destruction.

Having arrived in Asia, Alexander, than whom none ever employed more successfully the power of superstition⁴⁵, confirmed the confidence of his fol-

Deliberation of the Persian satraps.

⁴³ Justin. xiii. 1.

⁴⁴ Arrian, Diodorus, and Curtius.

⁴⁵ Plut. Curtius, and Arrian, passim.

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lowers by many auspicious predictions and prodigies. While, with every military precaution, he pursued his march along the coast, Arsites, Spithridates, Memnon, and other governors of the maritime provinces, assembled in the town of Zeleia, distant sixty miles from the Hellespont. They had neglected to oppose the invasion by their superior fleet; they had allowed the enemy to encamp, unmolested, on their coasts; fear now compelled them to reluctant union; but jealousy made them reject the most reasonable plan of defence.

Judicious
advice of
Memnon,

This was proposed by Memnon the Rhodian, the ablest general in the service of Darius. He observed the danger of resisting the Macedonian infantry, who were superior in number, and encouraged by the presence of their king. That the invaders, fiery and impetuous, were now animated by hope, but would lose courage on the first disappointment. Destitute of magazines and resources, their safety depended on sudden victory. It was the interest of the Persians, on the other hand, to protract the war, above all to avoid a general engagement. Without risking the event of a battle, they had other means to check the progress of the invaders. For this purpose, they ought to trample down the corn with their numerous cavalry, destroy all other fruits of the ground, and desolate the whole country, without sparing the towns and villages. Some rejected this advice, as unbecoming the dignity of Persia⁴⁶; Arsites, governor of Lesser

rejected.

⁴⁶ *Αναξίον της Περσων μεγαλψυχίας*, "Unworthy the magnanimity of Persia." Diodor. p. 501.

Phrygia, declared with indignation, that he would never permit the property of *his* subjects to be ravaged with impunity. These sentiments the more easily prevailed, because many suspected the motives of Memnon. It was determined, therefore, by this council of princes, to assemble their respective forces with all possible expedition, and to encamp on the eastern bank of the Granicus, a river (midway between Zeleia and the Hellespont) which, issuing from Mount Ida, falls into the Propontis.

The scouts of Alexander having brought him intelligence of the enemy's design, he immediately advanced to give them battle. The phalanx marched by its flank in a double line⁴⁷, the cavalry on the wings, the waggons and baggage in the rear. The advanced guard, consisting of horsemen armed with pikes, and five hundred light infantry, the whole commanded by Hegelochus, were detached to examine the fords of the Granicus, and to observe the disposition of the enemy. They returned with great celerity, to acquaint Alexander, that the Persians were advantageously posted on the opposite bank, their horse amounting to twenty thousand, and their foreign mercenaries, drawn up on the slope of a rising ground, behind the cavalry, scarcely less numerous. Notwithstanding this alarming intelligence, the young

Alexander
prepares
to pass the
Granicus.
Olymp.
cxi. 3.
A. C. 334.

⁴⁷ The διπλη φάλαγξ is explained in this sense by Ælian and Arrian. In ordinary cases the phalanx marched by its flank, that is, with a front of sixteen men. The διπλη φάλαγξ, therefore, contained a front of thirty-two men.

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prince determined to pass the river. Having advanced within sight of the hostile ranks, his horse spread to the right and left, the massy column of infantry opened, and the whole formed along the bank in order of battle. The phalanx, divided into eight sections, composed the main body, which occupied the centre; the Macedonian cavalry formed the right wing; the Grecian, the left.

Rejects the
cautious
counsels
of Par-
menio.

While Alexander made these dispositions, the cautious Parmenio approached, and remonstrated against passing the Granicus in the face of an enemy. The river, he observed, was deep and full of eddies; its banks abrupt and craggy; "it would be impossible, therefore, to march the Macedonians in front, and if they advanced in columns, their flanks must be exposed naked and defenceless. To try such dangerous manœuvres seemed unnecessary in the present juncture, because the Barbarians would certainly quit their station in the night, rather than remain encamped in the neighbourhood of so formidable an army." These prudential considerations prevailed not with Alexander, who declared that, in the first conflict, the Macedonians must act with equal promptitude and vigour, and perform something worthy of the terror which they bore. Saying this, he sprung on his horse, assumed the command of the right wing, and committed the left to Parmenio.

Battle of
the Gra-
nicus.
Olymp.
cxi. 3.
A. C. 334.

Animated by the hope of soon closing with the enemy, he disdained to employ his military engines. The balistas and catapults, by which, in a similar situation, he had repelled the Taulantii, were

were rejected as tedious or ineffectual. Alexander distributed his orders; a dreadful silence ensued; the hostile armies beheld each other with resentment or terror. This solemn pause was interrupted by the Macedonian trumpet, which, on a signal given by Alexander, resounded from every part of the line. His brother Ptolemy, as had been previously regulated, then rode forth at the head of a squadron of cuirassiers⁴⁸, followed by two bodies of light dragoons, and a battalion of infantry commanded by Amyntas. While these troops boldly entered the Granicus, Alexander likewise advanced with the chosen cavalry on the right wing, followed by the archers and Agrians. In passing the river, both Alexander and Ptolemy led their troops obliquely down the current, to prevent, as much as possible, the Persians from attacking them in flank, as they successively reached the shore. The Persian cavalry behaved with courage; the first squadrons of the Macedonians were driven back into the stream. But Alexander, who animated the *companions*⁴⁹ with his voice and arm, maintained his ground on the bank, and thought he had gained the battle, when he obtained an opportunity of fighting. In the equestrian engagement which followed, the Macedonians owed much to their skil-

⁴⁸ I have used this word to express those troops which the Greeks called *Cataphracts*, from the completeness of their defensive armour. Milton mentions them in *Samson Agonistes*,

“ Archers and slingers, Cataphracts and spears.”

⁴⁹ The eight squadrons of chosen cavalry, which were of that kind called *Cataphracts*, were honoured with the name of *Companions* and friends of the king. Arrian & Diodor. *passim*.

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Personal
prowess of
Alexander
and the
Macedo-
nian cap-
tains.

ful evolutions and discipline⁵⁰; still more to their strength and courage; and not a little to the excellence of their weapons, which being made of the cornel-tree⁵¹, far surpassed the brittle javelins of the enemy.

Meanwhile Parmenio crossed the Granicus, at the head of the left wing, with equal success, but unequal glory, because Alexander had already proved, by his example, that the difficulty might be overcome, which would have otherwise appeared unfurmountable. The attention of the enemy was so deeply engaged by the successive attacks of the cavalry, that they seem not to have made much opposition to the passage of the phalanx. But before this powerful body of infantry had crossed the river, the Macedonian horse had already reaped the fairest honours of the field. Alexander animated them by his presence, and, after performing all the duties of a great general, displayed such personal acts of prowess as will be more readily admired than believed by the modern reader. But in the close combats of antiquity, the forces, when once thoroughly engaged, might be safely abandoned to the direction of their own resentment and courage, while the commanders displayed the peculiar accomplishments to which they had been

⁵⁰ They derived great advantages, particularly, from the light infantry intermixed with their squadrons. The targeteers and Agrians proved extremely useful in helping the Macedonians to keep off the Persian cavalry, which, when too near, hindered them from the proper use of their lances.

⁵¹ *Ac myrtus validis hastilibus & bona bello*
Cornus.

VIRG. GEORG. ii. v. 447.

trained

trained from their youth, in the more conspicuous parts of the field. Alexander was easily distinguished by the brightness of his armour, and the admirable alacrity of his attendants. The bravest of the Persian nobles impatiently waited his approach. He darted into the midst of them, and fought till he broke his spear. Having demanded a new weapon from Aretes, his master of horse, Aretes shewed him his own spear, which likewise was broken. Demaratus the Corinthian supplied the king with a weapon. Thus armed, he rode up, and assaulted Mithridates, son-in-law of Darius, who exulted before the hostile ranks. While Alexander beat him to the ground, he was himself struck by Ræfages with a hatchet. His helmet saved his life. He pierced the breast of Ræfages; but a new danger threatened him from the scimitar of Spithridates. The instrument of death already descended on his head, when Clitus cut off the arm of Spithridates, which fell with the grasped weapon.

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The heroism of Alexander animated the valour of the *companions*, and the enemy first fled where the king commanded in person. In the left wing, the Grecian cavalry must have behaved with distinguished merit, since the Persians had begun on every side to give way before the Macedonian infantry had completely passed the river⁵². The stern

The Persians defeated.

⁵² Guischardt, p. 208. says, " Aussitôt que la phalange fut en état d'agir contre l'ennemie, avec tout son front hérissé de piques, la victoire cessa d'être douteuse." It appears not, however, that

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stern aspect of the phalanx, shining in steel and bristling with spears, confirmed the victory. Above a thousand Persian horse were slain in the pursuit. The foot, consisting chiefly in Greek mercenaries, still continued in their first position, not firm, but inactive, petrified by astonishment, not steady through resolution⁵³. While the phalanx attacked them in front, the victorious cavalry assailed their flanks. Surrounded on all sides, they fell an easy prey; two thousand surrendered prisoners; the rest all perished, unless a few stragglers perchance lurked among the slain.

Loss on
both sides.

The battle of the Granicus proved fatal to most of the Persian commanders. Arsites, the chief adviser of the engagement, died in despair by his own hand. The generals Niphates and Petenes, Omares leader of the mercenaries, Spithridates satrap of Lydia, Mithrobuzanes governor of Cap-

the phalanx at all acted against the Persian cavalry. The battle of Granicus was entirely an equestrian engagement, as had been prophesied to Alexander by his namesake, a priest of Minerva in the Troade. See Diodor. l. xvii. p. 571.

⁵³ Εκπληξεί μαλλον τι τε παραλογη, η λογισμω, βιβανω. Arrian. It might be suspected that the Greek mercenaries were not very hearty in the Persian cause, and had delayed declaring themselves till they beheld the issue of the equestrian engagement. This is conjectured by Guischart in his admirable Memoires Militaires, p. 208. But the fidelity of their countrymen to Darius on all subsequent occasions, as well as the severe treatment they met with in the present battle, seem sufficient to remove that dishonourable suspicion. Their conduct, seemingly unaccountable, is ascribed, by Arrian, to their astonishment, that Alexander's cavalry should have passed the Granicus, and repelled the Persian horse, which was four times more numerous.

padocia,

padocia, Mithridates, son-in-law of Darius, and Arbupales son of Artaxerxes, were numbered among the slain. Such illustrious names might lead us to suspect, that the Persians were still more numerous than Arrian⁵⁴ represents them; and, notwithstanding the nature of ancient weapons and tactics, which rendered every battle a rout, and commonly prevented the retreat of the vanquished, it is scarcely to be believed, that in such an important engagement, Alexander should have lost only eighty-five horsemen, and thirty light infantry⁵⁵. Of the former, twenty-five belonged to the royal band of Companions. By command of Alexander, their statues were formed by the art of his admired Lysippus⁵⁶, and erected in the Macedonian city of Dium.

This important victory enabled Alexander to display both his humanity and his prudence. He declared the parents and children of the deceased thenceforth exempted from every species of tribute⁵⁷. He carefully visited the wounded, at-

Humanity
and pru-
dence of
Alexan-
der.

⁵⁴ Diodorus, l. xvii. p. 572. makes them amount to one hundred and ten thousand. Justin is quite extravagant. The Persians, he says, were six hundred thousand.

⁵⁵ Others diminished the loss to thirty-five horsemen and nine foot soldiers. Aristobul. apud Plut. in Vit. Alexand.

⁵⁶ Arrian says, ὅσπερ καὶ Ἀλεξάνδρον μόνος προκρίθεισ ἐποίησε. "Who was alone preferred to make the image of Alexander." This, doubtless, increased the honour conferred on the Companions. Arrian would have spoke more accurately, had he said, "to cast the figure of Alexander in bronze." Other artists represented him in marble, in gems, medals, &c. of which hereafter.

⁵⁷ Arrian distinguishes τῷ σωματι λειψυργίας; καὶ κατὰ τὰς κτήσεις εἰσφορίας, personal services; and contributions, in proportion to their property.

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tentively asked how each of them had received harm, and heard with patience and commendation their much-boasted exploits. The Persian commanders were interred; and the Greeks, both officers and soldiers. The Grecian captives were condemned to work in the Thracian mines, as a punishment for bearing arms against the cause of their country. But even this severity Alexander softened by a very seasonable compliment to the Athenians, whose city he preferred to be the repository of his trophies and renown. Immediately after the battle, he sent three hundred suits of Persian armour, as dedications to Minerva in the citadel. This magnificent present was inscribed with the following words: "Gained by Alexander, son of Philip, and the Greeks (except the Lacedæmonians), from the Barbarians of Asia." It is remarkable, that on this occasion he omits mention of the Macedonians, whether because he wished them to be comprehended under the name of Greeks; or because, in the Persian war, he always affected rather to avenge the cause of Greece, than to gratify his own ambition; or, finally, that the Greeks being thus exclusively associated to his honours, might thenceforth continue zealous in making new levies for his service.

Immediate
consequence of
the victory.

The battle of the Granicus opened to Alexander the conquest of Ionia, Caria, Phrygia; in a word, all the Asiatic provinces west of the river Halys, which had anciently formed the powerful monarchy of the Lydians. Many of the walled towns surrendered at his approach. Sardis, the splendid capital

pital of Crœsus, opened its gates to a deliverer, and once more obtained the privilege of being governed by its ancient laws, after reluctantly enduring, above two centuries, the cruel yoke of Persia. The Grecian cities on the coast were delivered from the burden of tribute and the oppression of garrisons; and, under the auspices of a prince, who admired their ancient glory in arts and arms, resumed the enjoyment of their hereditary freedom. During the Persian expedition of Alexander, the Ephesians were still employed in rebuilding their temple, which had been set on fire by Herostratus, twenty years before that period, and on the same night, it is said, which gave birth to the destined conqueror of the East. Alexander encouraged their pious and honourable undertaking; and, in order to accelerate its progress, commanded the tribute which had been paid to the Persians, to be appropriated to the temple of Diana⁵³.

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Miletus and Halicarnassus alone retarded the progress of the conqueror. The latter place, commanded by Memnon the Rhodian, made a memorable defence. Alexander had scarcely sat down before it, when the garrison, consisting of Greeks and Persians, sallied forth, and maintained a desperate conflict. Having repelled them with much difficulty, he undertook the laborious work of filling up a ditch thirty cubits broad, and fifteen deep, which the besieged, with incredible diligence, had drawn round their wall. This being effected,

Siege of
Miletus
and Hali-
carnassus.

⁵³ Comp. Arrian. p. 18. & Strab. p. 949.

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he advanced wooden towers, on which the Macedonians erected their battering engines, and prepared to assault the enemy on equal ground. But a nocturnal sally attacked these preparations; a second engagement was fought with still greater fury than the first; three hundred Macedonians were wounded, darkness preventing their usual precaution in guarding their bodies⁵⁹.

Bold adventure of
two Macedonian
soldiers.

A few days afterwards, Halicarnassus, which had so obstinately resisted skill and courage, was on the point of yielding to rashness and accident. The battalion of Perdiccas happened to be posted on that side of the wall, which looked towards Miletus. Two soldiers, belonging to this corps, while they supped together in their tent, boasted their military exploits; each, as usual, preferring his own. Wine heated their emulation. They rushed forth to assault the wall of Halicarnassus, animated less with the mad hope of victory, than with an ambition to display their respective prowess. The centinels perceived their audacity, and prepared to repel them; but they killed the first men who approached, and threw javelins at others who followed them. Before their boldness was overwhelmed by numbers, many soldiers belonging to the same battalion advanced to their relief. The Halicarnassians, also, hastened to the defence of their friends; a sharp conflict ensued; the garrison was repelled; the wall attacked; two towers and the intervening curtain thrown down; and had

⁵⁹ Arrian, p. 20.

greater numbers joined in the assault, the town must have been taken by storm⁶⁰.

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The humanity of Alexander rendered him unwilling to come to that extremity. But the extraordinary success of such an unpremeditated enterprise, engaged him to ply the walls with new vigour. The defence was as obstinate as before; two desperate sallies were made, and repelled with consummate bravery. Alexander's tenderness for the Halicarnassians prevented him from entering the place with an enraged and licentious soldiery. He therefore recalled his troops in the moment of victory, hoping that the besieged would finally surrender, and thus save their lives and properties. From the various breaches in the walls, and the numbers who had perished, or been wounded, in repeated conflicts, Memnon and his colleagues perceived, that much longer resistance was impossible. In this emergency they displayed the same decisive boldness which had appeared in every part of their defence. Having summoned the bravest of their adherents, they, in the night-time, set fire to a wooden tower, which they had erected for defence against the shocks of the enemy's engines, and for protection to their arsenal and magazines, and escaped to two neighbouring castles of great strength. About midnight, Alexander perceived the raging flames, and immediately sent a detachment to punish those who had excited, or who fomented, the conflagration; but with strict

Halicarnassus taken and reluctantly demolished.
Olymp. cxi. 3.
A.C. 334.

⁶⁰ Arrian, p. 22.

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Alexander
commits
the go-
vernment
of Caria
to Ada.

orders to spare such of the townsmen as were found in their houses. Next day, he examined the castles, and perceived that they could not be taken without much loss of time; but that independent of the town, they were of themselves of little value; a circumstance which obliged him, reluctantly, to demolish Halicarnassus, that it might never thenceforth serve as a retreat to his enemies⁶¹.

The inactive season of the year was employed by Alexander in securing and improving his advantages. The inferior cities were committed to the discretion of his lieutenants; the king in person visited his more important conquests; and few places were honoured with his presence without experiencing his bounty. Before leaving Caria, where the siege of Halicarnassus long detained his impatient activity, he committed the administration to Ada, the hereditary governess of that province. Ada was the sister, and the wife of Hidrieus, on whose decease she was entitled to reign, both by the Carian laws and those of Upper Asia, where female succession had been established ever since the age of Semiramis. But the great king, with the usual caprice of a despot, had rejected the just claim of Ada, and seated a pretender on her tributary throne. The injured princess, however, still maintained possession of the strongly fortified city Alinda. When Alexander appeared in Caria, Ada hastened to meet him, addressed him by the name of son, and voluntarily surrendered to

⁶¹ Arrian, p. 23.

him Alinda. The king neither rejected her present, nor declined her friendship; and, as he always repaid favours with interest, he committed to her, at his departure, the government of the whole province, and left a body of three thousand foot and two hundred horse, to support her authority.

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The measures of Alexander were equally decisive and prudent. The Persian fleet, supplied by Egypt, Phœnicia, and the maritime provinces of Lower Asia, four times out-numbered his own, which, small as it was, still appeared too expensive for his treasury. Alexander determined to discharge it, declaring to his lieutenants, that, by conquering the land, he would render himself master of the sea, since every harbour that surrendered to him must diminish the naval resources of the enemy⁶². Agreeably to this judicious plan of conquest, he pursued his journey through the southern provinces of the Asiatic peninsula, while Parmenio traversed the central countries of Lydia and Phrygia. At the same time Cleander was dispatched into Greece to raise new levies; and such soldiers as had married shortly before the expedition, were sent home to winter with their wives; a measure which extremely endeared Alexander to the army, and ensured the utmost alacrity of his European subjects, in furnishing supplies towards the ensuing campaign.

His judicious plan
of war.

⁶² It will appear in the sequel how faithfully Alexander adhered to this plan of war, which kept open his communication with Greece and Macedon, and enabled him to pursue, with security, his conquests in the East.

Accom-

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The arts
by which
he secured
his con-
quests.

Accompanied by such winning arts, the valour and prudence of Alexander seemed worthy to govern the world. His conduct, perhaps, often proceeded from the immediate impulse of sentiment; but it could not have been more subservient to his ambition, had it been invariably directed by the deepest policy. After the decisive battle of the Granicus, he experienced little obstinacy of resistance from the numerous forts and garrisons in Lower Asia. The tributary princes and satraps readily submitted to a milder and more magnanimous master; and the Grecian colonies on the coast eagerly espoused the interest of a prince who, on all occasions, avowed his partiality for their favourite institutions. In every province or city which he conquered, he restored to the Asiatics their hereditary laws; to the Greeks, their beloved democracy. While he allowed them to assume the forms of independent government, he was careful to bridle the animosity of domestic faction. Into whatever country he marched, he encouraged useful industry, and alleviated public burdens. His taste and his piety alike prompted him to repair the sacred and venerable remains of antiquity. He considered the Barbarians, not as slaves, but as subjects; the Greeks, not as subjects, but allies; and both perceived in his government such moderation and equity as they had never experienced either from the despotism of Persia, or from the domineering ambition of Athens and Sparta⁶³.

⁶³ Compare Plut. in Alexand. Curtius & Arrian, passim; & Thucyd. Xenoph. Isocrat. & Diodor.

Having

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Having received the submission of Xanthus, Patara, Phaselis, and above thirty other towns or sea-ports in Lycia, Alexander, probably for the sake of greater expedition, divided the corps under his immediate command. A considerable detachment traversed the Lycian and Pamphilian mountains, while the king in person pursued the still more dangerous track, leading along the sea-coast from Phaselis to Perga. On this foaming shore, the sea commonly beats against the rocks, and renders the passage impracticable, unless when the waves are repelled by a strong north wind. When Alexander began his march, the wind blew from the south. Yet he advanced without fear, confiding in his fortune. His troops cheerfully followed him, encouraged by many artful prodigies⁶⁴ which announced success to his undertaking. The event which next happened, was well fitted to strengthen their credulity, and confirm their implicit obedience. Before they had reached the

Singular
felicity of
Alexander's
march
from Pha-
selis to
Perga.

⁶⁴ While Alexander deliberated whether he should march forwards to attack Darius, a measure which promised glory and plunder to his troops, or proceed along the sea-coast, and reduce the maritime cities, which would prevent the enemy from profiting of his absence in Upper Asia, to conquer Greece or Macedonia with their fleet, a fountain near the city Xanthus in Lycia boiled up, and threw out a copper-plate, engraved with ancient characters, signifying that the time was come when the Persian empire should be overthrown by the Greeks. Plutarch adds, *τετοιας επαγγελίας, ηπεινετο την παραλιαν ανακλιθρασθαι*. "Encouraged by this prodigy, he hastened to subdue the coast." It would perhaps have been more worthy of an historian to say, "Encouraged by this prodigy, the Greeks and Macedonians readily obeyed the commands of their prudent, not less than valiant general."

main

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main difficulties of the pass, the south wind gradually ceased; a brisk gale sprang up from the north; the sea retired; and their march thus became alike easy and expeditious. The authentic evidence of Arrian explains the marvellous in this occurrence, which Josephus, with no less indecency than folly, compares with the passage of the Israelites over the Red Sea. Yet even the philosophical Arrian acknowledges, that the many concurring instances of good fortune in the life of Alexander, seemed to be produced by the immediate interposition of divine power, which, in effecting an important revolution in the Eastern world, rendered the operations of nature, and the volitions of men, subservient to the secret purposes of its providence.

In proceeding eastward from Perga, Alexander was met by ambassadors from Aspendus, the principal city and sea-port of Pamphylia. The Aspendians offered to surrender their city, but entreated, that they might not be burdened with a garrison. Alexander granted their request, on condition of their raising fifty talents to pay his soldiers, and delivering to him the horses which they reared as a tribute for Darius. The ambassadors accepted these terms; but their countrymen, who were distinguished by their ambition and rapacity, still more than by their commerce and their wealth, discovered no inclination to fulfil them. Alexander was informed of their treachery while he examined the walls of Syllius, another strong-hold of Pamphylia. He immediately marched towards Aspendus,

dus, the greater part of which was situate on a high and steep rock, washed by the river Eury-medon. Several streets, however, were likewise built on the plain, surrounded only by a slight wall. At the approach of Alexander, the inhabitants of the lower part of the town ascended the mountain. Alexander entered the place, and encamped within the walls. The Aspendians, alarmed by the apprehension of a siege, intreated him to accept the former conditions. He commanded them to deliver the horses, as agreed on; to pay, instead of fifty, an hundred talents; and to surrender their principal citizens as securities, that they would thenceforth obey the governor set over them; pay an annual tribute to Macedon; and submit to arbitration a dispute concerning some lands, which they were accused of having unjustly wrested from their neighbours⁶⁵.

He pun-
ishes the
treachery
of Aspen-
dus.

Having chastised the insolence and treachery of Aspendus, Alexander determined to march into Phrygia, that he might join forces with Parmenio, whom he had commanded to meet him in that country. The new levies from Greece and Macedon were likewise ordered to assemble in the same province; from which it was intended, early in the spring, to proceed eastward, and achieve still more important conquests. To reach the southern frontier of Phrygia, Alexander was under a necessity of traversing the inhospitable mountains of the warlike Pisidians. Amidst those rocks and fastnesses, the Macedonians

Alexan-
der enters
Phrygia.
Olymp.
cxi. 4.
A.C. 333.

⁶⁵ Arrian, p. 26.

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ture at
Gordium.

lost several brave men ; but the undisciplined fury, and unarmed courage, of the Pisidians was unable to check the progress of Alexander. The city of Gordium in Phrygia was appointed for the general rendezvous. This place is distant about seventy-five miles from the Euxine, and two hundred and forty from the Cilician sea ; and was famous, in remote antiquity, as the principal residence of the Phrygian kings, and the chief seat of their opulence and grandeur⁶⁶. Alexander had not long arrived in that place, when a desire seized him of ascending to the ancient castle or palace of Gordius, and of beholding the famous knot on his chariot, which was believed to involve the fate of Asia. Gordius, as the story went, was a man of slender fortune among the ancient Phrygians, who had but a small piece of land, and two yokes of oxen, one of which he employed in the plough, and the other in the waggon. It happened to Gordius, while he was one day ploughing, that an eagle alighted on his yoke, and sat on it till evening. Alarmed by the prodigy, Gordius had recourse to the Telmessians, a people inhabiting the loftiest mountains⁶⁷ in Pisidia, and celebrated over all the neighbouring countries for their skill in augury. At the first village of the Telmessians, he met a virgin drawing water at a fountain, to whom having communicated his errand, she ordered him to ascend the

⁶⁶ See vol. i. c. vii. p. 290.

⁶⁷ Arrian, p. 27. calls it *υπερυψηλον, και παντη αποτομον*. "Exceedingly high, and every where abrupt." But in Gordius's time, at least, the Telmessians must have possessed some villages on the plain. See Arrian, p. 30.

hill,

hill, and there sacrifice to Jupiter. Gordius intreated her to accompany him, that the sacrifice might be performed in due form. She obeyed. Gordius took her to wife. She bore him a son, Midas, who, when he arrived at manhood, was distinguished by his beauty and valour. It should seem that the father of Midas had, in consequence of his marriage, settled among the Telmessians, with whose arts his son would naturally become acquainted. The Phrygians, at that time, were harassed by cruel seditions; they consulted an oracle, who told them, that a chariot should soon bring them a king, who would appease their tumults. While the assembly still deliberated on the answer given them by the oracle, Midas arrived in his chariot⁶⁸, accompanied by his parents. The appearance of Midas justified the prediction, and announced him worthy of royalty. The Phrygians elected him king; their seditions ceased; and Midas, in gratitude to Jupiter, consecrated his father's chariot, and suspended it by a cord made of the inner rind of the cornel-tree, the knot of which was so nicely tied, that no eye could perceive where it began or ended. Whether Alexander untied, or cut the knot, is left uncertain by historians⁶⁹; but all agree that his followers retired with

⁶⁸ The Greek word *ἀμαξα* expresses either a chariot or a wagon. Perhaps neither the name, nor the thing, were then distinguished in Phrygia. Curtius tells us, this *ἀμαξα* was "cultu haud sane a villoribus vulgarisque usu abhorrens," l. iii. c. i. p. 10.

⁶⁹ Curtius, l. iii. c. i. says, he cut it with his sword. Plutarch says he untied it. Vit. Alexand. p. 1236. Arrian gives both ac-

CHAP. with complete conviction that he had fulfilled the
 XXXVII. oracle. A seasonable storm of thunder confirmed
 their credulity⁷⁰; and the belief, that their master
 was destined to be lord of Asia, could not fail to
 facilitate that event.

Treachery
 of Alexan-
 der, the
 son of Æ-
 ropus.

The rapid progress of Alexander, and his continual exertions during that season of the year when armies are little accustomed to keep the field, tends to heighten our surprise at the inactivity of Darius, an ambitious prince, who had signalised his valour against the fiercest nations of Asia. But Darius, corrupted by the honours of royalty, employed very different weapons against Alexander, from those by which the champion of Ochus had defeated the warlike chief of the Cardusians⁷¹. Instead of opposing the invader in the field, he hoped to destroy him by the arm of an assassin. Many traitors were suborned for this infamous purpose, but none with greater prospect of success than Alexander, the son of Æropus. This man owed his life to the clemency of the son of Philip, when his brothers Heromenes and Arrabæus were condemned as accessory to the murder of that prince. He was numbered among the companions of Alexander, and had recently been entrusted with the command of the Thessalian cavalry, after the

counts; and the latter on the authority of Aristobulus, which is therefore the more probable.

⁷⁰ Arrian, p. 31.

⁷¹ Darius killed a warrior of that nation who challenged the bravest of the Persians to single combat. This exploit gained him the government of Armenia, and made him be afterwards deemed worthy of the Persian throne. Diodor. l. xvii. p. 565.

nomina-

nomination of Calas, who held that high office, to the government of Phrygia. The promise of ten thousand talents, and of the kingdom of Macedon, obliterated his gratitude and seduced his allegiance. But his treason escaped not the vigilance of Parmenio⁷², who communicated the intelligence to his master, while encamped in the neighbourhood of Phaselis. By the same faithful minister, the unworthy son of Æropus was seized, and committed to safe custody.

Darius, without desisting from his intrigues, finally had recourse to arms. His troops were assembled in the plains of Babylon. They consisted of an hundred thousand Persians, of whom thirty thousand were cavalry. The Medes supplied almost half that number, and the Armenians almost as many as the Medes. The Barcani, the Hyrcanians, the inhabitants of the Caspian shores, and nations more obscure or more remote, sent their due proportion of cavalry and infantry for this immense army, which, including thirty thousand Greek mercenaries in the Persian service, is said

The army
of Darius
marches
from Up-
per Asia.

⁷² According to Arrian, p. 25. a swallow shared the honour with Parmenio. While Alexander was asleep at mid-day, the swallow hovered around his head, perching sometimes on one side of his couch, and sometimes on another. Its incessant chattering roused the king from sleep: but being exceedingly fatigued, he gently removed the bird with his hand. Instead of endeavouring to escape, the swallow perched on his head, and ceased not being extremely noisy and troublesome, till he thoroughly awoke. The prodigy was immediately communicated to Aristander the Telmessian soothsayer, who declared that a conspiracy was formed against the king by one of his domestics and friends; but that it would certainly be discovered, because the swallow is a domestic bird, a friend to man, and exceedingly loquacious.

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to have amounted to six hundred thousand men. The magnificence of the Persians had not diminished since the days of Xerxes; neither had their military knowledge increased. Their muster was taken by the same contrivance employed by that monarch⁷³. Ten thousand men were separated from the rest, formed into a compact body, and surrounded by a palisade. The whole army, passing successively into this inclosure, were rather measured, than numbered, by their generals. Nothing could exceed the splendour that surrounded Darius; the trappings of his horses, the rich materials and nice adjustment of his chariot, the profusion of jewels which covered his royal mantle, vest, and tiara. The dress, and even the armour of his guards, were adorned with gold, silver, and precious stones. He was attended by his family, his treasures, and his concubines, all escorted by numerous bands of horse and foot. His courtiers and generals copied, as usual, too faithfully, the effeminate manners of their master⁷⁴.

Alexander
passes the
northern
Gate of
Cilicia.

While this pageant, for it deserves not the name of army, slowly advanced towards Lower Asia, Alexander left Gordium, and marched to Ancyra, a city of Galatia. In that place, he received an embassy from the Paphlagonians, who surrendered to him the sovereignty of their province, but intreated that his army might not enter their borders.

⁷³ See vol. i. c. ix. p. 419, & seqq.

⁷⁴ Propinquorum, amicorumque, conjuges huic agmini proximar. Q. Curtius, l. iii. c. iii. & Diodor. l. xvii. p. 580.

He

He granted their request, and commanded them to obey Calas, satrap of Phrygia. Alexander then marched victorious through Cappadocia; and Sabinas being appointed to the administration of that extensive province, the army encamped at the distance of six miles from the Cilician frontier, at a place which, since the memorable expedition performed and described by Xenophon, retained the name of Cyrus's Camp. Towards the south, the rich plain of Cilicia is washed by the sea, and surrounded on three sides by lofty and almost impervious mountains. Arsames, governor of that country, had sent a body of troops to guard a post called the Gates, and the only pass which leads from Cappadocia into Cilicia. Apprised of this measure, Alexander left Parmenio and the heavy-armed troops in the Camp of Cyrus. At the first watch of the night, he led the targeteers, archers, and Agrians, to surprise the Persian forces stationed at the northern Gate of Cilicia. The Barbarians fled on his approach; and the pusillanimous Arsames, to whom the whole province was entrusted by Darius, prepared to plunder, and then abandon, his own capital of Tarsus. But he had only time to save his person. The rapidity of Alexander prevented the destruction of that city, where the inhabitants received him as their deliverer.

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At Tarsus, Alexander was detained by a malady, occasioned by excessive fatigue: or, as others say, by imprudently bathing, when heated, in the cold waters of the Cydnus, which flows through that

Falls sick
at Tarsus.

CHAP. city, in a clear and rocky channel⁷⁵. Philip the
 XXXVII. Acarnanian was the only person who despaired not
 of his life. While this skilful physician adminis-
 tered a draught to his royal patient, a letter came
 from Parmenio, warning Alexander to beware of
 Philip, who had been bribed by Darius to poison
 him. Alexander took the potion, and gave Phi-
 lip the letter; so that the physician read, while the
 king drank; a transaction which proved either his
 contempt of death, or his unshaken confidence in
 his friends; but which, by the admiration of his
 contemporaries and posterity⁷⁶, has been construed
 into a proof of both.

Alexander
 marches to
 Mallos.

The sickness of Alexander interrupted not the
 operations of the army. Parmenio was dispatched
 to seize the only pass on Mount Amanus, which
 divides Cilicia from Assyria. The king soon fol-
 lowed, having in one day's march reached Anchi-
 alos, an ancient city of vast extent, and surrounded
 with walls of prodigious thickness. The greatest
 curiosity of Anchialos was the tomb of Sardanapa-
 lus, distinguished by the statue of that effeminate
 tyrant, in the attitude of clapping his hands; and
 by an Assyrian inscription, breathing the true spirit
 of modern Epicurism. The original ran in verse
 to the following purpose: "Sardanapalus, son of

⁷⁵ Curtius gives another reason for its excessive coldness:
 "Frigidissimus quippe nulla riparum amœnitate inumbratus,"
 l. iii. c. iv. From his laboured description of this river, it seems
 as if he imagined *that* water must have possessed very extraordi-
 nary qualities, which proved hurtful to Alexander.

⁷⁶ See Arrian, p. 32. Curtius, l. iii. c. v.

Anacyndaraxas, built Anchialos and Tarsus in one day. As to you, stranger! eat, drink, and sport⁷⁷; for other human things are not worth *this*," alluding to the clap of his hands⁷⁸.

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Having arrived at Mallos, an Argive colony at the eastern extremity of Cilicia, Alexander learned that Darius lay with his army in the extensive plain of Sochos, in the province of Comagene, distant only two days march from the Cilician frontier. The hostile armies were separated by the mountains which divide Cilicia and Syria. Alexander hastened to pass the straits called the Syrian Gates, proceeded southwards along the bay of Issus, and encamped before the city Mariandrus. At this place he received a very extraordinary piece of intelligence. His delay in Cilicia, which had been occasioned by sickness, and by the many pious ceremonies⁷⁹ with which he gratefully thanked Heaven for his recovery, was ascribed to very different motives by Darius and his flatterers. That perfidious race, the eternal bane of kings⁸⁰, easily per-

Alexander passes the Syrian straits; and Darius, in an opposite direction, the defiles of Amanus.

⁷⁷ The word translated "sport," is *παιζει* in Arrian, p. 32. But that author says, the Assyrian original had a more lascivious meaning. Plut. Orat. ii. de Fortun. Alexand. translates it *αφροδισιαζει*, "veneri indulge."

⁷⁸ Mr. de Guignes, so deservedly celebrated for his Oriental learning, proves this inscription to be entirely conformable to the style and manners of the East. See Mem. de l'Acad. des Inscript. tom. xxxiv. p. 416, & seqq.

⁷⁹ Processions with lighted torches, sacrifices to Æsculapius, gymnastic and musical contests. Arrian, l. ii. p. 33.

⁸⁰ Arrian expresses this sentiment with more his than usual energy: *Των κατα ηδονην ζυνοιτων τε και ξυνεσომειων, επι κακη τοις αιει βασιλευσι.*

suaded

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suaded the vain credulity of their master, that Alexander shunned his approach. The proud resentment of Darius was exasperated by the imagined fears of his adversary; with the impatience of a despot he longed to come to action; and not suspecting that Alexander would traverse the Syrian Gates in search of the enemy, he hastily determined to pass, in an opposite direction⁸¹, the straits of Amanus, in quest of Alexander. This fatal measure was carried into immediate execution, notwithstanding the strong representations of Amyntas⁸² the Macedonian, and of all Darius's Grecian counsellors⁸³, who unanimously exhorted him to wait the enemy in his present advantageous position. In the language of antiquity⁸⁴, an irresistible fate, which had determined that the Greeks should conquer the Persians, as the Persians had the Medes, and the Medes the Assyrians, impelled Darius to his ruin. Having passed the defiles of Amanus, he directed his march southward to the bay of Issus, and took the city of that name, which contained, under a feeble guard, the sick and wounded Macedonians, who had not been able to follow the army in its expeditious march across the

⁸¹ These movements are explained only by Arrian. Diodorus, Plutarch, and Curtius, not attending to the geography of the country, are inconsistent and unintelligible.

⁸² Amyntas, though an exile, was not a flatterer. He assured Darius, that Alexander would certainly come to any place where the Persians encamped. Arrian, p. 34.

⁸³ Aristomenes the Pheræan, Bianor the Acarnanian, Thymondas the son of Mentor, the Rhodian, and others mentioned by Arrian, *passim*.

⁸⁴ Arrian, Plut. Diodor. Curt.

mountains. The Persians put these unhappy men to death with shocking circumstances of cruelty⁸⁵, little thinking that Alexander was now behind, prepared to avenge their fate.

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That enlightened prince, who could scarcely believe the folly of Darius, sent a small flat-bottomed vessel to reconnoitre his motions. This vessel speedily returned to Alexander, and saluted him with the agreeable news that his enemies were now in his hands. Having summoned an assembly, the king forgot none of those topics of encouragement which the occasion so naturally suggested, since the meanest Macedonian soldier could discern the injudicious movements of the Persians, who had quitted a spacious plain, to entangle themselves among intricate mountains, where their numerous cavalry, in which they chiefly excelled, could perform no essential service. In preparing for this important contest, the spirits of the Macedonians were elevated by a recollection of many fortunate occurrences. Ptolemy, as they had recently learned, had made himself master of the strong fortresses in Caria. The brave Memnon indeed had escaped; but that able commander, who, to pave the way for invading Macedon, had attacked the Grecian isles with his fleet, was since dead; and his successors in command, after irritating the islanders by their insolence and oppression, were defeated in all their designs by the vigilance of Antipater. The army of Alexander had lately increased, by many volun-

Circumstances which encouraged the Macedonian army.

⁸⁵ Καλεπῶς αἰκισαμένους ἀποκτείνε, Arrian, p. 34. It is remarkable, that he ascribes this ferocity to Darius himself.

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tary accessions of the Asiatics, who admired his courage, mildness, and uninterrupted good fortune; and the soldiers, who the preceding year had been sent to winter in Europe, had not only rejoined the camp, but brought with them numerous levies from Greece, Macedon, and all the adjoining countries. By men thus disposed to indulge the most sanguine hopes, the military harangue of their prince was received with a joyous ardour. They embraced each other; they embraced their admired commander; and his countenance confirming their alacrity, they entreated to be led to battle ⁸⁶.

Disposition
of both
armies.

Alexander commanded them first to refresh their bodies; but immediately dispatched some horse and archers to clear the road to Issus. In the evening he followed with his whole army, and about midnight took possession of the Syrian straits. The soldiers were then allowed a short repose, sufficient guards being posted on the surrounding eminences. At dawn, the army was in motion, marching by its flank while the passage continued narrow; and new columns being successively brought up, as the mountains gradually opened. Before reaching the river Pinarus, on the opposite bank of which the enemy were encamped, the Macedonians had formed in order of battle; Alexander leading the right wing, and the left being commanded by Parmenio. They continued to advance, till their right was flanked by a mountain, and their left by the sea, from which Parmenio was ordered not to recede. Darius being apprised of the enemy's ap-

⁸⁶ Arrian, p. 33—36.

proach, detached a body of fifty thousand cavalry and light infantry across the Pinarus, that the remainder might have room to form without confusion. His Greek mercenaries, amounting to thirty thousand, he posted directly opposite to the Macedonian phalanx. The Greeks were flanked on both sides by double that number of Barbarians, also heavy armed. The nature of the ground admitted not more troops to be ranged in front; but as the mountain on Alexander's left, sloped inwards, Darius placed on that sinuosity twenty thousand men, who could see the enemy's rear, though it appears not that they could advance against them. Behind the first line the rest of the Barbarians were ranged, according to their various nations, in close and unserviceable ranks; Darius being every where encumbered by the vastness of a machine, which he had not skill to wield ⁸⁷.

His pusillanimity was more fatal than his ignorance. When he perceived the Macedonians advancing, he commanded his men to maintain their post on the Pinarus, the bank of which was in some places high and steep; where the access seemed easier, he gave orders to raise a rampart; precautions which shewed the enemy, that even before the battle began, the mind of Darius was already conquered ⁸⁸. Alexander, meanwhile, rode along

The battle
of Issus.
Olymp.
cxi. 4.
A.C. 333.

⁸⁷ Arrian, p. 36.

⁸⁸ Καὶ ταύτῃ εὐθὺς δηλὸς ἐγένετο τοῖς ἀμφὶ Ἀλεξάνδρον τῇ γαμψῇ δεδουλωμένος. "And thence he immediately appeared to those about Alexander to be already enslaved in his mind." In those times, slavery was the natural consequence of being conquered in battle.

the

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the ranks, exhorting, by name, not only the commanders of the several brigades, but the tribunes and inferior officers, and even such captains of the auxiliaries as were distinguished by rank, or ennobled by merit. Perceiving it necessary to moderate the martial ardour that prevailed, he commanded his forces to advance with a regular and slow step, lest the phalanx should fluctuate through too eager a contention. Their motion quickened as they proceeded within reach of the enemy's darts. Alexander, with those around him, then sprung into the river. Their impetuosity frightened the Barbarians, who scarcely waited the first shock⁸⁹. But the Greek mercenaries perceiving that by the rapidity and success of Alexander's assault, the Macedonians were bent towards the right wing, which was separated from the centre, seized the decisive moment of rushing into the interval, where the phalanx was disjointed. A fierce engagement ensued, the Greeks eager to regain the honour of their name, the Macedonians ambitious to maintain the unfulfilled glory of the phalanx. This desperate action proved fatal to Ptolemy the son of Seleucus, and other officers of distinction, to the number of an hundred and twenty. Meanwhile, the Macedonian right wing having repelled the enemy with great slaughter, wheeled to the left, and, animated by recent victory, finally prevailed

⁸⁹ They did, however, wait it; for Arrian says, εὐθὺς γὰρ ὡς ἐν χεῖρσι μάχῃ ἐγένετο. The “ μάχῃ ἐν χεῖρσι ἐγένετο;” when the darts and javelins ceased, and the contending parties came to the use of manual, instead of missile, weapons.

against

against the obstinacy of the Greeks. A body of Persian horse still maintained the battle against the Theſſalian cavalry; nor did they quit the field, till informed that Darius had betaken himself to flight ⁹⁰.

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The overthrow of the Persians was now manifest on all sides. Their cavalry and infantry suffered equally in the rout; for their horsemen were heavy-armed, and encumbered by the narrowness of the roads, and their own terror. Ptolemy, the son of Lagus ⁹¹, says, that the pursuers filled up the ditches with dead bodies. The number of the slain was computed at an hundred and ten thousand, among whom were many satraps and nobles.

Rout of
the Per-
sians.

The great king had discovered little obstinacy in defending the important objects at stake. His left wing was no sooner repelled by Alexander, than he drove away in his chariot, accompanied by his courtiers. When the road grew rough and mountainous, he continued his flight on horseback, leaving his shield, his mantle, and his bow, which were found by the Macedonians. Alexander, who had received a troublesome wound on the thigh ⁹², judged it improper to pursue him, till the Greek mercenaries were dispersed; and the approach of night facilitated his escape.

Escape of
Darius.

⁹⁰ Arrian, l. ii. p. 36, & seqq.

⁹¹ Idem, *ibid*.

⁹² Chares, cited by Plutarch, says, that Alexander received this wound from the hand of Darius; but the silence of Alexander's letter to Antipater, in which he gave an account of the battle, and of his wound on the thigh, refutes that improbable assertion.

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The cap-
tives and
booty.

The Persian camp afforded abundant proof of Asiatic luxury and opulence⁹³. It contained however in money but three thousand talents; the magnificent treasures, which accompanied the great king, being deposited, previous to the battle, in the neighbouring city of Damascus. This inestimable booty was afterwards seized by order of Alexander, who found in the camp a booty more precious, the wife and daughters of Darius, his mother Syfigambis, and his infant son. In an age when prisoners of war were synonymous with slaves, Alexander behaved to his royal captives with the tenderness of a parent, blended with the respect of a son. In his chaste attention to Statira, the fairest beauty of the East, his conduct forms a remarkable contrast with that of his admired Achilles, whom he equalled in valour, but far surpassed in humanity. These illustrious princesses bore their own misfortunes with patience, but burst into dreadful lamentations, when informed by an eunuch that he had seen the mantle of Darius in the hands of a Macedonian soldier. Alexander sent to assure them that Darius yet lived; and next day visited them in person, accompanied by Hephestion, the most affectionate

⁹³ Among other things of value in the tent of Darius, was found a casket of exquisite workmanship, adorned with jewels. It was employed to hold Darius's perfumes.—Alexander said, "I use no perfumes, but shall put into it something more precious." This was the *Iliad* of Homer, corrected by Aristotle, and often mentioned by ancient writers; *ἡ ἐκ τοῦ ιαζέθνος*, "the *Iliad* of the casket." Strabo, l. xiii. p. 888. Plut. in Alexand.

of his friends⁹⁴. Syfigambis approached to prostrate⁹⁵ herself before the conqueror, according to the custom of the East; but not knowing the king, as their dress was alike, she turned to Hephestion. Hephestion suddenly stepping back, Syfigambis saw her mistake, and was covered with confusion. "You mistook not, madam!" said the king, "Hephestion is likewise Alexander⁹⁶."

The virtues of Alexander long continued to expand with his prosperity; but he was never more inimitably great, than after the battle of Issus. The city of Soli, in Cilicia, though inhabited by a Grecian colony, had discovered uncommon zeal in the cause of Darius. To punish this unnatural apostacy from Greece, Alexander demanded a heavy contribution from Soli; but, after the victory, he remitted this fine. Impelled by the same generous magnanimity, he released the Athenian captives taken at the battle of the Granicus; a favour which he had sternly refused, in the dawn of his fortune. In Damascus, several Grecian ambassadors were found among the captives. Alexander ordered them to be brought into his presence. Theffaliscus and Dionysodorus, the Thebans, he instantly declared free, observing, that the misfortunes of their country justly entitled the Thebans to apply to Darius, and to every

The virtues of Alexander expand with his prosperity.

⁹⁴ Alexander, with his usual discernment, characterised the affection of Hephestion: "Craterus loves the prince; Hephestion loves Alexander." Plut. in Alexand.

⁹⁵ Πρὸς τὸν θεὸν καὶ προσκυνοῦσαι. Arrian, l. ii. p. 39.

⁹⁶ Curtius, l. iii. c. xii. Arrian, p. 39.

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prince from whom they might derive relief. Iphicrates, the Athenian, he treated with the respect which appeared due both to his country and to his father. Euthycles the Spartan, alone, he detained in safe custody, because Sparta sullenly rejected the friendship of Macedon. But as his forgiveness still increased with his power⁹⁷, he afterwards released Euthycles.

⁹⁷ Arrian, p. 42.

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Siege of Tyre.—Desperate Resistance of Gaza.—Easy Conquest of Egypt.—Foundation of Alexandria.—Alexander visits the Temple of Jupiter Ammon.—Marches into Assyria.—Battle of Gaugamela.—Darius betrayed and slain.—Alexander pursues the Murderers of Darius.—Bactrian and Scythian War.—Siege of the Sogdian Fortrefs.—Surrender of Chorienes.—Commotions in Greece—Checked by Antipater.—The Cause of Ctesiphon and Demosthenes.—Æschines banished.—State of Greece during Alexander's Reign.

IN his precipitate flight across the ridges of Amanus, Darius was gradually joined by about four thousand men, chiefly Greeks. Under this feeble escort, he departed hastily from Sochos, pursued his march eastward, and crossed the Euphrates at Thapsacus, eager to interpose that deep and rapid stream between himself and the conqueror¹. Alexander's inclination to seize the person of his adversary could not divert him from the judicious plan of war, to which he immoveably adhered. In a council of his friends, he declared his opinion, that it would be highly imprudent

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Alexander receives an embassy from 1 yre. Olymp. cxi. 4. A. C. 333.

¹ Ὡς ταχιστα μισοι αὐτὸς τε καὶ τὸ Αλεξάνδρῳ τοῖς Εὐφράτην ποιησαί.
Arrian, p. 40.

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to attempt the conquest of Babylon, until he had thoroughly subdued the maritime provinces; because, should he be carried by an unseasonable celerity into Upper Asia, while the enemy commanded the sea, the war might be removed to Europe, where the Lacedæmonians were open enemies, and the Athenians doubtful friends. Having appointed governors of Cilicia and Cœlo-Syria, he therefore directed his march southward along the Phœnician coast. Aradus, Marathus, and Sidon², readily opened their gates. The Tyrians sent a submissive embassy of their most illustrious citizens, among whom was the son of Azelmicus, their king, who had himself embarked with Autophradates in the Persian fleet. They humbly informed Alexander, that the community³ from which they came, was prepared to obey his commands. Having complimented the city and the ambassadors, he desired them to acquaint their countrymen, that he intended shortly to enter Tyre, and to perform sacrifice there to Hercules⁴.

Upon

² I omit the story of Abdelerminus, whom Alexander raised from the humble condition of a gardener to the throne of Sidon. Vid. Curt. l. iv. c. i. Diodorus, l. xvii. relates the same story as happening in Tyre. Plutarch, de Fortun. Alexand. translates the scene to Paphos. Amidst such inconsistencies, the silence of Arrian seemed worthy of imitation.

³ Arrian says, that these ambassadors were *απο της κοινης επαλμεναι*. It should seem that the king of Tyre was a very limited prince, and the government rather republican than monarchical.

⁴ The reader may recollect, that Philip sent a similar message to Atheas, king of the Scythians. Such pious pretences were often

Upon this alarming intelligence, the Tyrians discovered equal firmness and prudence. A second embassy assured Alexander of their unalterable respect, but at the same time communicated to him their determined resolution, that neither the Persians nor the Macedonians should ever enter their walls. This boldness appears remarkable in a nation of merchants, long unaccustomed to war⁵. But the resources of their wealth and commerce seem to have elevated the courage, instead of softening the character, of the Tyrians. Their city, which, in the language of the East, was styled the eldest daughter of Sidon⁶, had long reigned queen of the sea. The *purple* shell-fish, which is found in great abundance on their coast⁷, early gave them possession of that lucrative trade, and confined chiefly to the Tyrians the advantage of clothing the princes and nobles in most civilized countries of antiquity⁸. Tyre was separated from the continent by a frith half a mile broad; its walls exceeded an hundred feet⁹ in height, and extended

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Description
and
state of
Tyre.

often employed by antiquity to justify very unwarrantable transactions.

⁵ Old Tyre was built on the continent, by the Sidonians, 1252 B. C. It was besieged by Salmaneser, 719 B. C.; and by Nebuchadnezzar, 572 B. C. The latter took the place after a siege of thirteen years; but the greater part of the inhabitants had previously fled with their effects to a neighbouring island, and founded the city described in the text. Vid. Joseph. l. viii. cap. ii. l. ix. cap. xiv. & l. x. cap. xi.

⁶ Isaiah, xxiii. 12. ⁷ Strabo, l. vi. p. 521.

⁸ Homer, Herodot. &c. passim. See likewise vol. i. p. 336.

⁹ Arrian says one hundred and fifty feet. The copies probably are erroneous.

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eighteen miles in circumference. The convenience of its situation, the capaciousness of its harbours, and the industrious ingenuity of its inhabitants, rendered it the commercial capital of the world. Its magazines were plentifully provided with military and naval stores, and it was peopled by numerous and skilful artificers in stone, wood, and iron ¹⁰.

Alexander
besieges
Tyre.
Olymp.
cxiii. i.
A. C. 332.

Notwithstanding the strength of the city, Alexander determined to form the siege of Tyre; and the difficulty of an undertaking, which seemed necessary in itself, and essential to the success of still more important enterprises, only stimulated the activity of a prince, who knew that, on many emergencies, boldness is the greatest prudence. The first operation which he directed, was to run a mole from the continent to the walls of Tyre, where the sea was about three fathom deep. The necessity of this measure arose from the imperfection of the battering engines of antiquity, which had little power, except at small distances. On the side of the continent, the work was carried on with great alacrity; but when the Macedonians approached the city, they were much incommoded by the depth of water, and exceedingly galled by darts and missile weapons from the battlements. The Tyrians, likewise, having the command of the sea, annoyed the workmen from their galleys, and retarded the completion of their labours. To resist these assaults, Alexander erected, on the furthest

Throws a
mole across
the frith;

¹⁰ Plutarch, Curtius, Arrian.

projecture of the mole, two wooden towers, on which he placed his engines, and which he covered with leather and raw hides to resist the ignited darts and fire-ships of the enemy. This contrivance, however, the ingenuity of his adversaries soon rendered ineffectual. Having procured a huge hulk, they filled it with dry twigs, pitch, sulphur, and other combustibles. Toward the prow, they raised two masts, each of which was armed with a double yard, from whose extremities were suspended vast caldrons, filled with whatever might add to the violence of the conflagration. Having prepared this uncommon instrument of destruction, they patiently waited a favourable wind. The hulk was then towed into the sea by two gallees. As she approached the mole, the rowers set her on fire, and escaped by swimming. The works of the Macedonians were soon thrown into a blaze. The enemy, sailing forth in boats, prevented them from extinguishing the flames; and the labour of many weeks was thus in one day reduced to ruins¹¹.

which is
destroyed
by the Ty-
rians.

The perseverance of Alexander was proof against such accidents. He immediately commanded new engines to be made, and a new mole to be raised, stronger and broader than the preceding. The orders of a prince, who directed every operation in person, and whose bodily toils exceeded those of the meanest soldier, were always obeyed with alacrity. The ruins of old Tyre afforded abundance of stone; wood was brought from Anti-Li-

Alexander
raises a new
mole.

¹¹ Arrian, p. 44, & seqq.

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His mili-
tary and
naval re-
inforce-
ments.

banus¹²; and it should seem that the Arabians, having disturbed the Macedonian workmen, were repelled by Alexander, which gave rise to the improbable fiction of his having conquered Arabia. By incredible exertions, the mole was at length built, and the battering engines were erected. The arrival of four thousand Peloponnesian forces seasonably reinforced Alexander, and revived the courage of his troops, exhausted by fatigue and dejected by defeat. At the same time the fleets of the maritime provinces which he had subdued, came to offer their assistance in an undertaking, which could scarcely have proved successful, while the Tyrians commanded the sea. The squadrons of Lower Asia were joined by the naval force of Rhodes and Cyprus. The whole armament of Alexander amounted to two hundred and twenty-four vessels¹³, so that the Tyrians, who hitherto confided

¹² Curtius confounds Anti-Libanus with Mount Libanus. It would be endless to notice his errors, exaggerations, and fictions in the account of this siege, which is one of the most romantic passages in his history. Curtius writes to the fancy, not to the judgment; and to readers of a certain taste the picturesque beauties of his style will atone for errors in matter of fact. *He* may be allowed to raise an imaginary storm, who can describe it like Curtius. "Tum inhorrescens mare paullatim levare, deinde acriori vento concitatum, fluctus cedere, & inter se navigia collidere. Jamque scindi cœperant vincula, quibus connexæ quadriremes erant, ruere tabulata, & cum ingenti fragore in profundum secum milites trahere." It is Alexander, whose actions he disfigures and renders incredible, not the reader, whose fancy he amuses, that is entitled to condemn Curtius.

¹³ Curtius, l. iv. c. iii. says, that it consisted of one hundred and eighty sail. Plutarch. in Alexand. says, that the haven of Tyre

confided in their fleet, now retired behind the defences of their ports for safety.

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Singular
operations
of the
siege.

But these persevering islanders, though they prudently declined an unequal combat, were forsaken neither by their activity nor their courage. The hulk and gallies¹⁴, destined to advance the battering engines against their walls, were assailed with continual showers of ignited arrows¹⁵; and other missile weapons, which came with peculiar effect from wooden towers newly raised on their lofty battlements. This distant hostility retarded, but could not prevent, the approaches of the enemy. The purpose of the Tyrians was better effected by casting down huge stones into the sea, which hindered access to the walls. To clear these incumbrances required the perseverance of the Macedonians, and the animating presence of Alexander. Before the work could be accomplished, the enemy advanced in covered vessels, and cut the cables of the hulks employed in that laborious service. Alexander commanded a squadron to advance and repel the Tyrians. Yet even this did not facilitate the removal of the bar; for the islanders, being expert divers, plunged under water, and again

Tyre was blocked up with two hundred triremes. Arrian distinctly mentions the number and species of ships sent by each city or province. From Macedon there came, he says, a vessel of fifty oars, πεντηκοντορος; a circumstance which proves that, on this emergency, Alexander had taken pains to collect ships from all quarters.

¹⁴ Such vessels were used for this purpose, as were the stoutest sailers. Arrian, p. 46.

15 Πυρροῖς οἱ 5 οἱ 5.

cutting

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cutting the cables, set the Macedonian vessels adrift. It thus became necessary to prepare chains, which were used instead of ropes; by which contrivance the hulks were secured in firm anchorage, the bank of stones was removed, and the battering engines advanced to the walls.

The Tyrians defeated at sea.

In this extremity the Tyrians, still trusting to their courage, determined to attack the Cyprian squadron, stationed at the mouth of the harbour which looked towards Sidon. The boldness of this design could only be surpassed by the deliberate valour with which it was carried into execution. The mouth of the haven they had previously covered with spread sails, to conceal their operations from the enemy. The hour of attack was fixed at mid-day, at which time the Greeks and Macedonians were usually employed in private affairs, or the care of their bodies, and Alexander commonly retired to his pavilion, erected near the harbour which looked towards Egypt. The best sailing vessels were carefully selected from the whole fleet¹⁶, and manned with the most expert rowers, and the most resolute soldiers, all enured to the sea, and well armed for fight. At first they came forth in a line, slowly and silently; but having proceeded within sight of the Cyprians, they at once clashed their oars, raised a shout, and advanced abreast of each other to the attack. Several of the enemy's ships were sunk at the first shock;

¹⁶ They consisted, says Arrian, in five choice quinqueremes, as many quadriremes, and seven triremes. See note, vol. i. p. 208, & seqq.

others

others were dashed in pieces against the shore. Alexander, who had fortunately that day tarried but a short time in his pavilion, was no sooner informed of this desperate folly, than, with admirable presence of mind, he immediately ordered such vessels as were ready, to block up the mouth of the haven, and thereby prevent the remainder of the Tyrian fleet from joining their victorious companions. Meanwhile, with several quinquereme, and five trireme, galleys, hastily prepared, he sailed round to attack the Tyrians. The besieged observing from their walls the approach of Alexander, endeavoured, by shouts and signals, to recal their ships. They had scarcely changed their course, when the enemy assailed, and soon rendered them unserviceable. The men saved themselves by swimming; few vessels escaped; two were taken at the very entrance of the harbour.

The issue of these naval operations decided the fate of Tyre. Unawed by the hostile fleet, the Macedonians now fearlessly advanced their engines on all sides. Amidst repeated assaults during two days, the besiegers displayed the ardour of enthusiasm¹⁷, the besieged the fury of despair. From

Tyre taken
by assault
Olymp.
cxii. i.
A. C. 332.
July.

towers

¹⁷ From the beginning, the difficulties of the siege had appeared almost unformountable to the soldiers. "But Alexander," says Curtius, "handquaquam rudis tractandi militares animos, speciem sibi Herculis in somno oblatam esse pronunciat, dextram porrigentis." The diviners thence concluded, as Arrian tells us, that Tyre would be taken, but that it would be an Herculean labour. Alexander continued throughout the siege to employ the aids of superstition. At one time it was said, that

Apello

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towers equal in height to the walls, the Greeks and Macedonians fought hand to hand with the enemy. By throwing spontoons across, the bravest sometimes passed over, even to the battlements. In other parts, the Tyrians successfully employed hooks and grappling-irons to remove the assailants. On those who attempted scaling-ladders, they poured vessels of burning sand, which penetrated to the bone. The vigour of the attack was opposed by as vigorous a resistance. The shock of the battering engines was deadened by green hides and coverlets of wool, and whenever an opening was effected, the bravest combatants advanced to defend the breach. But time and fatigue, which exhausted the vigour of the enemy, only confirmed the perseverance of Alexander. On the third day, the engines assailed the walls; and the fleet, divided into two squadrons, attacked the opposite harbours. A wide breach being effected, Alexander commanded the huiks, which carried the engines, to retire, and others, bearing the scaling-ladders, to advance, that his soldiers might enter the town over the ruins. The targeteers, headed by Admetus, first mounted the breach. This gallant commander was slain by a spear; but Alexander,

Apollo was about to leave Tyre, and that the Tyrians had fastened him with golden chains to prevent his elopement. At another, Alexander dreamed that a satyr playing before him, long eluded his grasp, but finally allowed himself to be caught. The augurs divided the word Σατυρος, a Satyr, into two syllables, Σα Τυρος, Tyre is thine. By such coarse artifices did Alexander conquer the world.

who

who was present wherever danger called, immediately followed with the royal band of *Companions*. At the same time the Phœnician fleet broke into the harbour of Egypt, and the Cyprians into that of Sidon. After their walls were taken, the townsmen still rallied, and prepared for defence. The length of the siege, and still more the cruelty of the Tyrians, who having taken some Grecian vessels from Sidon, butchered their crews on the top of their wall, and threw their bodies into the sea, in sight of the whole Macedonian army, provoked the indignation of Alexander, and exasperated the fury of the victors. Eight thousand Tyrians were slain; thirty thousand were reduced to servitude¹⁸. The principal magistrates, together with some Carthaginians who had come to worship the gods of their mother-country, took refuge in the temple of Tyrian Hercules. They were saved by the clemency or piety of Alexander, who had lost four hundred men in this obstinate siege of seven months¹⁹.

The conquest of Phœnicia was followed by the submission of the neighbouring province of Judæa²⁰.

Submis-
sion of
Judæa.

But

¹⁸ Curtius, l. iv. c. iv. says, that fifteen thousand Tyrians were saved by their Sidonian brethren, who clandestinely embarked them in their ships, and transported them to Sidon. This circumstance, omitted by Arrian, derives some probability from the vigorous resistance which, nineteen years afterwards, Tyre again made to the arms of Antigonus. Vid. Diodor. Sicul. p. 702—704.

¹⁹ Arrian, l. ii. p. 44—50.

²⁰ All the historians of Alexander are silent concerning his journey to Jerusalem, and his extraordinary transactions there, described

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Desperate
resistance
of Gaza.

But in the road leading to Egypt, the progress of the conqueror was interrupted by the strong city of Gaza, situate on a high hill, near the confines of the Arabian desert²¹. This place, distant about two miles from the sea, and surrounded by marshes or a deep sand, which rendered it extremely difficult of access, was held for Darius by the loyalty of Batis²², an eunuch, who had prepared to resist Alexander by hiring Arabian troops, and by pro-

described by Josephus, l. xi. c. viii. This story, invented by the patriotic vanity of the Jews, is totally inconsistent with the narrative of Arrian, copied in the text. As all Palestine, except Gaza, had submitted to his arms, “*Τα μὲν ἄλλα τῆς Παλαιστίνης περσικεχωρηκότα ἦν.*” Alexander had no occasion to march against Jerusalem. The conversation between Alexander, Parmenio, and the high-priest Jadduah, as related by Josephus, is likewise contradictory to the best-authenticated events in the reign of Alexander. When the high-priest approached to implore the clemency of the conqueror, Alexander, says the Jewish historian, prostrated himself before that venerable old man; an action which so much surprised Parmenio, that he immediately asked his master, “Why he, whom all the world adored, should himself adore the high-priest of the Jews?” It will appear in the sequel, that Alexander did not require this mark of respect (the *προσκύνησις*), till long after the period alluded to by Josephus; neither could he be accompanied by the Chaldeans, as that writer alleges; much less could the high-priest, with propriety, have requested Alexander to permit the Jews, settled in Babylon and Medea, the free exercise of their religion, before that prince had conquered those countries, or even passed the Euphrates. See this subject farther examined in Moyle’s Letters, vol. ii. p. 415. and in l’Examen Critique des Historiens d’Alexandre, p. 65—69.

²¹ *Εσχάζη δὲ κέκιστο ὡς ἐπ’ Αἰγύπτου ἐκ Φοινίκης ἰούτι, ἐπὶ τῇ ἀρχῇ τῆς ἐρημίας.* “It is the last inhabited place on the road from Phœnicia to Egypt, on the skirts of the desert.”

²² Curtius, l. iv. c. vi. calls him Belis; Josephus, l. xi. c. viii. Bahamefes.

viding copious magazines. The Macedonian engineers²³ declared their opinion that Gaza was impregnable. But Alexander, unwilling to incur the disgrace and danger of leaving a strong fortress behind him, commanded a rampart to be raised on the south side of the wall, which seemed least secure against an attack. His engines were scarcely erected, when the garrison made a furious sally, and threw them into flames. It required the presence of the king to save the rampart, and to prevent the total defeat of the Macedonians. Warned by a heavenly admonition²⁴, he had hitherto kept beyond the reach of the enemy's darts; and when the danger of his troops made him forget the divine omen, a weapon, thrown from a catapult, pierced his shield and breastplate, and wounded him in the shoulder. Soon afterwards the engines, which had been used in the siege of Tyre, arrived by sea. A wall of incredible height and breadth²⁵ was run entirely round the city; the Macedonians raised their batteries; the miners²⁶ were busy at the founda-

²³ Οἱ μηχανιστοὶ. the engine makers; it should seem that the same persons who made the engines, directed the application of them.

²⁴ While Alexander was sacrificing, a bird of prey let fall a stone on his head. According to Aristander, the soothsayer, this prodigy portended that the city should be taken, but that Alexander would be exposed to danger in the siege.

²⁵ Ὑπερ μὲν εἰς δύο σταδίας, ὑψὸς δὲ εἰς πόδας πεντήκοντα καὶ διακοσίας.
“Two furlongs in breadth, two hundred and fifty feet in height;” but the text is absurdly erroneous.

²⁶ Ἰπποβοῶν τε ἀλλή καὶ ἀλλή οὐρεσσομένων. Arrian, p. 51. This was an uncommon expedient, and used only on great emergencies.

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tion; breaches were effected; and, after repeated assaults, the city was taken by storm. When their wall was undermined, and their gates in possession of the enemy, the inhabitants still fought desperately, and, without losing ground²⁷, perished to a man. Their wives and children were enslaved; and Gaza, being repeopled from the neighbouring territory, served as a place of arms to restrain the incursions of the Arabs.

Easy conquest of
Egypt.
Olymp.
cxii. 1.
A.C. 332.

The obstinate resistance of the obscure fortress of Gaza, was contrasted by the ready submission of the celebrated kingdom of Egypt. In seven days march, Alexander reached the maritime city of Pelusium, to which he had previously sent the fleet, with an injunction carefully to examine the neighbouring coasts, lakes, and rivers. His decisive victory at Issus, the shameful flight of Darius, the recent subjugation of Syria and Phœnicia, together with the actually defenceless state of Egypt (Mazaces the satrap of that large province having no Persian, and scarcely any regular troops), opened a ready passage to the wealthy capital of Memphis. There, Alexander was received as sovereign, and immediately afterwards acknowledged by the whole nation; a nation long accustomed to fluctuate between one servitude and another, always ready to obey the first summons of an invader, and ever willing to betray him for a new master. Grateful for his unexampled success,

²⁷ Καὶ ἀπέθανον πάντες αὐτῶ μαχόμενοι, ὡς ἑκατοὶ σταθῆσαν.
The highest panegyric, being the very words applied by Lyfias, Herodotus, &c. to those who fell at Thermopylæ.

Alexander

Alexander sacrificed at Memphis to the Egyptian gods, and celebrated in that city gymnastic and musical games, which were adorned by Grecian artists, accompanying him for that purpose. Having placed sufficient garrisons both in Memphis and Pelusium, he embarked with the remainder of his forces, and sailed down the Nile to Canopus ²⁸.

At this place, Alexander found abundant occupation for his policy, in a country where there was no opportunity for exercising his valour. Continually occupied with the thoughts, not only of extending, but of improving, his conquests, the first glance of his discerning eye perceived what the boasted wisdom of Egypt had never been able to discover. The inspection of the Mediterranean coast, of the Red Sea, of the Lake Marœotis, and of the various branches of the Nile, suggested the design of founding a city, which should derive, from nature only, more permanent advantages than the favour of the greatest princes can bestow. Fired with this idea, he not only fixed the situation ²⁹, but traced the plan of his intended capital, described

Founda-
tion of
Alexan-
dria.

²⁸ Arrian, p. 51, & seqq.

²⁹ Egypt, says Baron Tott, who lately surveyed that country with the eye of an engineer and a statesman, was formed to reunite the commerce of Europe, Africa, and the Indies. It stood in need of a harbour, vast, and of easy access. The mouths of the Nile afford neither of these advantages; the only proper situation was distant twelve leagues from the river, and in the heart of a desert. On this spot, which none but a great genius could have discovered, Alexander built a city, which, being joined to the Nile by a navigable canal, became the capi-

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described the circuit of its walls, and assigned the ground for its squares, market-places, and temples³⁰. Such was the sagacity of his choice, that within the space of twenty years, Alexandria rose to distinguished eminence among the cities of Egypt and the East, and continued, through all subsequent ages of antiquity, the principal bond of union, the seat of correspondence and commerce, among the civilized nations of the earth.

Alexander
visits the
temple of
Ammon.
Olymp.
cxii. 1.
A. C. 332.

In Egypt, an inclination seized Alexander to traverse the southern coast of the Mediterranean, that he might visit the revered temple and oracle of Jupiter Ammon. This venerable shrine was situate in a cultivated spot of five miles in diameter, distant about fifty leagues from the sea, and rising with the most attractive beauty amidst the sandy deserts of Lybia. Among the African and Asiatic nations, the oracle of Ammon enjoyed a similar authority to that which Delphi had long held in Greece; and, perhaps, the conquest of the East could not have been so easily accomplished by Alexander, had he not previously obtained the sanction of this venerated shrine. Guided by prudence, or impelled by curiosity, he first proceeded two hundred miles westward, along the coast to Parætonius, through a desolate country,

tal of nations, the metropolis of commerce. The trading nations of the earth still respect its ruins, heaped up by barbarism, and which require but the operation of a beneficent hand, to restore the boldest edifice which the human mind ever dared to conceive. *Mem. du Baron de Tott, t. ii. p. 179.*

³⁰ *Arrian, l. iii. sub init.*

but

but not destitute of water. He then boldly penetrated towards the south, into the midland territory, despising the danger of traversing an ocean of sand, unmarked by trees, mountains, or any other object that might direct his course, or vary this gloomy scene of uniform sterility³¹. The superstition of the ancients believed him to have been conducted by ravens, or serpents; which, without supposing a miracle, may, agreeably to the natural instinct of animals, have sometimes bent their course, through the desert, towards a well-watered and fertile spot, covered with palms and olives. The fountain, which was the source of this fertility formed not the least curiosity of the place. It was exceedingly cool at mid-day, and warm at mid-night; and, in the intervening time, regularly, every day, underwent all the intermediate degrees of temperature. The adjacent territory produced a fossil salt, which was often dug out in large oblong pieces, clear as crystal. The priests of Ammon inclosed it in boxes of palm-tree, and bestowed it, in presents, on kings and other illustrious personages; such salt being regarded as purer than that procured from seawater, and therefore preferred for the purpose of sacrifice, by persons curious in their worship³².

Alexander admired the nature of the place, consulted the oracle concerning the success of his expedition, and received, as was universally reported,

Alexander
settles the
government of
Egypt.

³¹ Arrian, p. 53, & seqq. & Curtius, l. iv. c. vii.

³² Arrian, *ibid.*

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a very favourable answer³³. Having thus effected his purpose at the temple of Ammon, he returned to Memphis, in order finally to settle the affairs of Egypt. The inhabitants of that country were re-instituted in the enjoyment of their ancient religion and laws. Two Egyptians were appointed to administer the civil government; but the principal garrisons, Alexander prudently entrusted to the command of his most confidential friends³⁴; a policy alike recommended by the strength and importance of the country, and by the restless temper of its inhabitants.

Darius collects an army from his eastern provinces.

The Macedonians had now extended their arms over Anatolia, Carmania, Syria, and Egypt; countries which anciently formed the seat of arts and empire, and which actually compose the strength and centre of the Turkish power. But Darius (after all hopes of accommodation had vanished with a conqueror who demanded unconditional submission to his clemency³⁵) still found resources

³³ Vid. Plut. Alexand. p. 680. The priest, or prophet, meant to address Alexander by the affectionate title of *παῖς*, child, son; but not being sufficiently acquainted with the Greek tongue, he said, *παῖς Διός*, son of Jupiter. On this wretched blunder were founded Alexander's pretensions to divinity. Plut. *ibid.* & Zonar. Annal. i. p. 134. The fictions of Curtius are inconsistent with Arrian, and with Strabo, l. xvii. p. 1168.

³⁴ Arrian observes, that the Romans seem to have imitated the jealousy of Alexander respecting Egypt. Sensible of the temptations of the governors of that province to revolt, they appointed, not senators, but men of the equestrian order, to be Proconsuls of Egypt. Arrian, p. 55.

³⁵ In this, Arrian and Curtius agree. The letters between Alexander and Darius are differently expressed by these writers.

resources in his eastern provinces, Schirvan, Gilan, Korosan, and the wide extent of territory between the Caspian and the Jaxartes. Not only the subjects of the empire, but the independent tribes in those remote regions, which in ancient and modern times have ever been the abode of courage and barbarity, rejoiced in an opportunity to signalise their restless valour. At the first summons, they poured down into the fertile plains of Assyria, and increased the army of Darius far beyond any proportion of force which he had hitherto collected.

Meanwhile, Alexander having received considerable reinforcements from Greece, Macedon, and Thrace, pursued his journey eastward from Phœnicia, passed the Euphrates at Thapsacus³⁶, boldly stemmed the rapid stream of the Tigris, and hastened to meet the enemy in Assyria. Darius had pitched his tents on the level banks of the Bumadus, near the obscure village of Gaugamela; but the famous battle, which finally decided the empire of the East, derived its name from Arbela, a town in the same province, sixty miles distant from the former, better known, and of easier pronunciation³⁷.

Alexander
marches
into Assy-
ria.
Olymp.
cxii. 2.
A. C. 331.

In both their accounts, which are totally inconsistent with each other, there are internal marks of falsehood.

³⁶ Darius had entrusted the defence of the pass to Mazacus, with a body of cavalry, of which two thousand were Greeks. But on the first intelligence of Alexander's approach, Mazacus abandoned his post, and drew off his forces. Arrian, p. 56.

³⁷ This reason, which is given by Arrian, could scarcely have appeared valid to any but a Greek. Vid. Arrian, p. 131.

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Ap-
proaches
the enemy.

Their
numbers.

The fourth day after passing the Tigris, Alexander was informed by his scouts, that they had seen some bodies of the enemy's horse, but could not discover their numbers. Upon this intelligence he marched forward in order of battle; but had not proceeded far, when he was met by other scouts, who having penetrated deeper into the country, or examined with greater accuracy, acquainted him that the hostile cavalry scarcely exceeded a thousand. This news made him alter his measures. The heavy-armed troops were commanded to slacken their pace. At the head of the royal cohort, the Pœonians, and auxiliaries, Alexander advanced with such celerity, that several of the Barbarians fell into his hands. These prisoners gave him very alarming accounts of the strength of Darius, who was encamped within a few hours march. Some made it amount to a million of foot, forty thousand horse, two hundred armed chariots, and fifteen elephants from the eastern banks of the Indus³⁸. Others exaggerated (if indeed it was an exaggeration) with more method and probability, reducing the infantry to six hundred thousand, and raising the cavalry to an hundred and forty-five thousand³⁹. But all agreed, that the present army was greatly more numerous, and composed of more warlike nations, than that which had fought at Issus⁴⁰.

³⁸ Arrian, p. 57.

³⁹ Curtius, l. iv. c. xii. xlii. edit. Genev. The numbers are different in the other editions.

⁴⁰ Arrian & Curtius, loc. citat. Justin, l. xi. c. xii. Diodorus, l. xlii. c. xxxix. & liii. Orosius, l. iii. c. xvii. Plut. in Alexand.

Alexander

Alexander received this information without testifying the smallest surprise. Having commanded a halt, he encamped four days, to give his men rest and refreshment. His camp being fortified by a good intrenchment, he left in it the sick and infirm, together with all the baggage; and, on the evening of the fourth day, prepared to march against the enemy, with the effective part of his army, which was said to consist of forty thousand infantry, and seven thousand horse, unincumbered with any thing but their provisions and armour. The march was undertaken at the second watch of the night, that the Macedonians, by joining battle in the morning, might enjoy the important advantage of having an entire day before them, to reap the full fruits of their expected victory. About half way between the hostile camps, some eminences intercepted the view of either army. Having ascended the rising ground, Alexander first beheld the Barbarians, drawn up in battle array, and perhaps more skilfully marshalled than he had reason to apprehend. Their appearance, at least, immediately determined him to change his first resolution. He again commanded a halt, summoned a council of war, and different measures being proposed, acceded to the single opinion of Parmenio, who advised that the foot should remain stationary, until a detachment of horse had explored the field of battle⁴, and

⁴ Τὴν χώραν πᾶσαν ἵνα τὸ ἔργον εἰσεσθαι ἐμελλεν. "The whole scene of the future action." Arrian, p. 8.

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carefully examined the disposition of the enemy. Alexander, whose conduct was equalled by his courage, and both surpassed by his activity, performed those important duties in person, at the head of his light horse, and royal cohort. Having returned with unexampled celerity, he again assembled his captains, and encouraged them by a short speech. Their ardour corresponded with his own; and the soldiers, confident of victory, were commanded to take rest and refreshment ⁴².

Disposition
of the ene-
my;

Meanwhile, Darius perceiving the enemy's approach, kept his men prepared for action. Notwithstanding the great length of the plain, he was obliged to contract his front, and form in two lines, each of which was extremely deep. According to the Persian custom, the king occupied the centre of the first line, surrounded by the princes of the blood, and the great officers of his court, and defended by his horse and foot guards, amounting to fifteen thousand chosen men. These splendid troops, who seemed fitter for parade than battle, were flanked, on either side, by the Greek mer-

⁴² Δειπνωσασθαι καὶ ἀναπαυσθαι ἐκέλευσε τὸν στρατὸν. "He commanded his army to sup and rest." Arrian, p. 58. This does not well agree with what is said, p. 57. εἶδεν ἄλλο ὅτι μὴ ὅπλα φέρουσιν, "That the soldiers carried nothing but their armour." I have therefore supplied the word "provisions." Both Arrian (loc. citat.), and Curtius, l. iv. c. xiii. say, that Parmenio exhorted Alexander to attack the enemy in the night; to which the king answered, that he disdained κλέψαι τὴν νίκην, "to steal the victory:" an answer worthy of his magnanimity and his prudence; since the day and the light were more favourable to the full exertion and display of his superior skill and courage.

cenaries, and other warlike battalions, carefully selected from the whole army. The right wing consisted of the Medes, Parthians, Hyrcanians, and Sacæ; the left was chiefly occupied by the Bactrians, Persians, and Cardusians. The various nations composing this immense host were differently armed, with swords, spears, clubs, and hatchets; while the horse and foot of each division were promiscuously blended, rather from the result of accident, than by the direction of design. The armed chariots fronted the first line, whose centre was farther defended by the elephants. Chosen squadrons of Scythian, Bactrian, and Cappadocian cavalry advanced before either wing, prepared to bring on the action, or after it began, to attack the enemy in flank and rear.

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The unexpected approach of Alexander within sight of his tents, prevented Darius from fortifying the wide extent of his camp; and, as he dreaded a nocturnal assault, from enemies who often veiled their designs in darkness, he commanded his men to remain all night under arms. This unusual measure, the gloomy silence, the long and anxious expectation, together with the fatigue of a restless night, discouraged the whole army, but inspired double terror into those who had witnessed the miserable disasters on the banks of the Granicus and the Issus.

who remain all night under arms.

At day-break, Alexander disposed his troops in a manner suggested by the superior numbers and deep order of the enemy. His main body consisted

Alexander's order of battle;

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sisted in two heavy-armed phalanxes, each amounting to above sixteen thousand men. Of these, the greater part formed into one line; behind which, he placed the heavy-armed men, reinforced by his targeteers, with orders, that when the out-spreading wings of the enemy prepared to attack the flanks and rear of his first line, the second should immediately wheel to receive them⁴³. The cavalry and light infantry were so disposed on the wings, that while one part resisted the shock of the Persians in front, another, by only facing to the right or left, might take them in flank. Skilful archers and darters were posted at proper intervals, as affording the best defence against the armed chariots, which (as Alexander well knew) must immediately become useless, whenever their conductors or horses were wounded.

and mode
of attack.

Having thus arranged the several parts, Alexander with equal judgment led the whole in an oblique direction towards the enemy's left; a manœuvre which enabled the Macedonians to avoid contending at once with superior numbers. When his advanced battalions, notwithstanding their nearness to the enemy, still stretched towards the right, Darius also extended his left, till fearing that by continuing this movement his men should be drawn gradually off the plain, he commanded the Scythian squadrons to advance, and prevent the further extension of the hostile line. Alexander

⁴³ Επιταξε δε και δευτεραν ταξιν ὡς ειναι την Φαλαγγα ἀμφοτερον. Arrian, p. 60. The Φαλαγξ ἀμφοτερος is explained by Ælian, as described in the text.

immediately detached a body of horse to oppose them. An equestrian combat ensued, in which both parties were reinforced, and the Barbarians finally repelled. The armed chariots then issued forth with impetuous violence; but their appearance only was formidable; for the precautions taken by Alexander, rendered their assault harmless. Darius next moved his main body, but with so little order, that the horse, mixed with the infantry, advanced, and left a vacuity in the line, which his generals wanted time or vigilance to supply. Alexander seized the decisive moment, and penetrated into the void with a wedge of squadrons. He was followed by the nearest sections of the phalanx, who rushed forward with loud shouts, as if they had already pursued the enemy. In this part of the field, the victory was not long doubtful; after a feeble resistance, the Barbarians gave way; and the pusillanimous Darius was foremost in the flight⁴⁴.

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Battle of
Gaugamela.
Olymp.
cxii. 2.
A. C. 331.
October.

The battle, however, was not yet decided. The more remote divisions of the phalanx, upon receiving intelligence that the left wing, commanded by Parmenio, was in danger, had not immediately followed Alexander. A vacant space was thus left in the Macedonian line, through which some squadrons of Persian and Indian horse penetrated with celerity, and advanced to the hostile camp⁴⁵. It was then that Alexander derived signal and

⁴⁴ Εφύγε εν τοις πρωτοις αισχρωις. "He fled shamefully among the foremost." Arrian, p. 69.

⁴⁵ The words of Arrian are, Αλλ' επιησαντις την Φαλαγγα (viz. the sections on the left), ηγωνίζετο, οτι το ευωτυμον ποιησθαι

and well-earned advantages from his judicious order of battle. The heavy-armed troops and targeteers, which he had skilfully posted behind the phalanx, speedily faced about, advanced with a rapid step, and attacked the Barbarian cavalry, already entangled among the baggage. The enemy, thus surpris'd, were destroyed, or put to flight. Meanwhile, the danger of his left wing recalled Alexander from the pursuit of Darius. In advancing against the enemy's right, he was met by the Parthian, Indian, and Persian horse, who

πεισθαι ηγγελλτο. Και ταυτη παραβραχυσις αυτοις της ταξιας, κατω το δεχον, δι κπαισι των τε Ινδων τιτες, και της Περσικης ιππευ, ως επι τα σκευοφορα των Μακεδονων, &c. The learned Guichard's commentary is ingenious, but scarcely warranted by the text. "Les sections de la droite de la phalange ayant donné en même temps que les Peltastes, les autres sections, qui étoient par l'oblique plus ou moins en arrière, tacherent aussi de marcher en avant, & de charger l'ennemi. Mais les troupes de la droite des Perses, voyant le fort de combat au centre, se presserent toutes vers cet endroit de la ligne, en se poussant mutuellement, & la foule embarassa tellement les soldâts de la phalange, qu'il leur fut alors impossible de s'avancer. Sur ces entrefaites, Alexandre, pour se faire jour, se jeta sur les derrières de ces ennemis. En même temps la nouvelle de la fuite de Darius, & de la deroute de toute sa gauche s'étant repandue, la consternation devint générale. L'effet en fut singulier; les Perses se voyant coupés, dans leur retraite, par les escadrons d'Alexandre, qu'ils avoient à dos, chercherent à se sauver, même à travers la phalange. Ils se jetterent à corps perdu sur elle. Quoique de vingt quatre de hauteur, elle ne put resister au poids de cette masse. Sa gauche étant alors plus chargée que sa droite, les sections, de celle-ci poussèrent en avant, & n'observerent pas que, depuis la troisième section, la gauche restoit en arrière. Il en resulta que la phalange se separa, que sa droite s'avança à la poursuite de l'ennemi, & que des corps nombreux de cavalerie & d'infanterie, qui avoient été au centre Persan, entrèrent tout-à-coup par la crevasse, & poussèrent jusques derrière la ligne des Macédoniens." See Mémoires Militaires, c. xv. p. 221.

maintained a sharp conflict. Sixty of the *Companions* fell; Hephæstion, Cœnus, and Menidas, were wounded. Having at length dissipated this cloud of cavalry, Alexander prepared to attack the foot in that wing. But the business was already effected, chiefly by the Theſſalian horſe; and nothing remained to be done, but to purſue the fugitives, and to render the victory as deciſive as poſſible ⁴⁶.

According to the leaſt extravagant accounts, with the loſs of five hundred men, he deſtroyed forty thouſand of the Barbarians ⁴⁷, who never thence-

Conſe-
quences of
the victory.

⁴⁶ Soldiers, better acquainted with the practice than with the theory of their art, have often teſtified a juſt ſurpriſe, that the battles of the ancients ſhould be deſcribed with an order, perſpicuity, and circumſtantial minuteness, which are not to be found in the military writers of modern times. Scholars have endeavoured to explain this difference, by obſerving the immense diſproportion, in point of dignity and abilities, between the military hiſtorians of modern Europe, and thoſe of Greece and Rome. But the difficulty will be better ſolved, by reflecting on the changes introduced into the art of war by the change of arms; which, in military operations, form the pivot on which the whole turns. 1. From the nature of fire-arms, modern battles are involved in ſmoke and confuſion. 2. From the ſame cauſe, modern armies occupy a much greater extent of ground, and begin to act at much greater diſtances; which renders it more difficult to obſerve and aſcertain their manœuvres. 3. The immense train of artillery, ammunition, &c. required in the practice of modern war, gives a certain immobility to our armies, which renders it impoſſible to perform, without great danger, thoſe rapid evolutions in fight of an enemy, which ſo often decided the battles of the ancients. With us, almoſt every thing depends on the judicious choice of ground, a matter requiring great military genius, but not admitting the embellishments of hiſtorical deſcription.

⁴⁷ In the battles of the Greeks and Romans, the extraordinary diſproportion between the numbers ſlain on the ſide of the victors

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thenceforth assembled in sufficient numbers to dispute his dominion in the East. The invaluable provinces of Babylonia, Susiana, and Persis, with their respective capitals of Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis⁴⁸, formed the prize of his skill and valour. Alexander had not yet attained the summit of his fortune, but he had already reached the height of his renown⁴⁹. The burning of the royal palace of Persepolis⁵⁰, to retaliate the ravages of

victors and of the vanquished, necessarily resulted from the nature of their arms. Their principal weapons being not missile, but manual, armies could not begin to act till they had approached so nearly to each other, that the conquered found themselves cut off from all possibility of retreat. In modern times, the use of fire-arms (which often renders the action itself more bloody) furnishes the defeated party with various means of retreating with considerable safety. The sphere of military action is so widely extended in modern times, that before the victors can run over the space which separates them from the vanquished, the latter may fall back, and proceed with little loss beyond their reach; and should any village, hedge, ravine, &c. be found in their way, may often check the ardour of the pursuers. Upon these considerations, the invention of gunpowder may be said to have saved the effusion of human blood. Equestrian engagements (since the principles on which cavalry act remain nearly the same in every age) are still distinguished by similar circumstances to those which appear so extraordinary in the battles of antiquity.

⁴⁸ The gold and silver found in those cities amounted to thirty millions sterling; the jewels and other precious spoil, belonging to Darius, sufficed, according to Plutarch, to load twenty thousand mules, and five thousand camels. Plut. in Alexand.

⁴⁹ After the battle of Arbela, many of Alexander's actions, as will appear in the text, deserve the highest praise; but, before that period, few of them can be justly blamed.

⁵⁰ Arrian, l. iii. p. 66. Plut. in Alexand. & Strabo, l. xv. p. 502. agree with Arrian in confining the conflagration to the palace.

of Xerxes in Greece, afforded the first indication of his being overcome by too much prosperity. To speak the most favourably of this transaction, an undistinguishing resentment made him forget that he destroyed his own palace, not that of his adversary.

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The settlement of his important and extensive conquests, and the reduction of the warlike Uxii, those independent mountaineers, who, inhabiting the western frontier of Persia, had ever defied the Persian power, restrained Alexander from urging the pursuit of Darius. After his defeat, that unfortunate prince escaped by a precipitate and obscure flight across the Armenian mountains into

Measures
of Darius.

palace. Plutarch tells us, that only a part of that edifice was consumed. Diodorus says inaccurately, ὁ περὶ τὴν βασιλείαν τόπος, “the place around the palace;” and Curtius, l. v. c. vii. with his usual extravagance, burns the whole city of Persepolis so completely, that not a vestige of it remained. The learned author of the *Examen Critique des Historiens d’Alexandre*, is at pains to prove that Persepolis existed under the successors of Alexander, and continued to exist till the first ages of Mahometanism, when the inhabitants of Persepolis, having violated their treaty with the Mussulmen, were butchered without mercy, and their city totally demolished. See *Examen Critique*, p. 125, & seqq. Mr. D’Hankerville, however, alleges reasons for believing that there were two cities called Persepolis by the Greeks, situate at a considerable distance from each other, one of which was burnt by Alexander, and the other destroyed by the Mussulmen. See his *Supplement to his Recherches sur les Arts, &c. de la Grèce*.

⁵¹ Arrian observes, that Darius shewed great judgment in his flight, having left the populous and well-frequented roads leading to Susa and Babylon, towards which he justly suspected that Alexander would march his army, and directing his course over the Armenian mountains into Media. Arrian, p. 63. Diodorus, l. xvii. p. 338. agrees with Arrian. The errors of Curtius, l. v. c. i. are too absurd to merit refutation.

Media.

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Media. Being gradually joined by the scattered remnant of his army, amounting to several thousand Barbarians, and fifteen hundred Greek mercenaries, he purposed to establish his court in Media, should Alexander remain at Susa or Babylon⁵²; but in case he were still pursued by the conqueror, his resolution was to proceed eastward, through Parthia and Hyrcania, into the valuable province of Bactria, laying waste the intermediate country, that he might thus interpose a desert between himself and the Macedonians. In this design, he dispatched to the Caspian Gates the waggons conveying his women, and such instruments of convenience or luxury as still softened his misfortunes; and remained in person at Ecbatana with his army. Alexander, when apprised of these measures, hastened into Media. In his way he subdued the Paritacæ; and having reached within three days march of the Median capital, was met by Bisthanes, the son of Ochus, Darius's predecessor⁵³. This prince informed him, that Darius had fled from thence five days before, attended by three thousand horsemen, and six thousand foot.

⁵² The foundation of this hope was, that a revolt might break out in the Macedonian army; since the more and the richer provinces Alexander acquired, his lieutenants would have the greater temptation to aspire at independence. Subsequent events will justify the reasonable expectation of Darius, which was on this occasion disappointed.

⁵³ Arrian, p. 66. speaks as if Ochus had been Darius's immediate predecessor, neglecting the short reign of Arces, the son of Ochus, who was poisoned soon after his father by the eunuch Bagoas. Diodor. xvii. 5. Ælian. Var. Hist. vi. 8.

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XXXVIII.Alexander
pursues
Darius;

Animated by this intelligence, Alexander proceeded to Ecbatana, in which place he left his treasures, and posted a strong garrison. In this city he likewise dismissed the Thessalian cavalry, and several auxiliary squadrons; paying them, besides their arrears, a gratuity of two thousand talents. Such as preferred the glory of accompanying his standard to the joy of revisiting their respective countries, were allowed again to enlist; a permission which many embraced. A strong detachment under Parmenio was sent into Hyrcania; Cænus, who had been left sick at Susa, was commanded to march with all convenient speed into Parthia; while the king, with a well-appointed army, advanced with incredible expedition⁵⁴ in pursuit of Darius. Having passed the Caspian Straits, he was met by Bagistanes, a Babylonian of distinction, who acquainted him that Bessus, governor of Bactria, in conjunction with Nabarzanes, an officer in Darius's cavalry, and Barzaentes, satrap of the barbarous Drangæ and Arachoti, had thrown aside all respect for a prince, who was no longer an object of fear. Upon this intelligence, Alexander declared expedition to be more necessary than ever. Having, therefore, left the heavy-armed troops and baggage under the command of Craterus, he hastened forward with a few select bands, encumbered only with their arms, and two days provisions.

⁵⁴ His marches were thirty-eight and forty miles a day; sometimes more. Xenophon's expedition of Cyrus, and Arrian's expedition of Alexander, mutually illustrate and confirm each other.

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In that space of time, he reached the camp from which Bagistanes had deserted; and finding some parties of the enemy there, learned that Darius, being seized and bound, was actually carried prisoner in his chariot; that Bessus, in whose province this treason had been committed, had assumed the imperial honours; that all the Barbarians (Artabazus only and his sons excepted) already acknowledged the usurper; that the Greek mercenaries preserved their fidelity inviolate; but finding themselves unable to prevent the flagitious scenes that were transacting, had quitted the public road, and retired to the mountains, disdaining not only to participate in the designs, but even to share the same camp with the traitors. Alexander farther learned, that should he pursue Bessus and his associates, it was their intention to make peace with him by delivering up Darius; but should he cease from the pursuit, that they had determined to collect forces, and to divide the eastern provinces of the empire.

who is
treache-
rously
slain.
Olymp.
cxii. 3.
A.C. 330.

Having received this information, Alexander marched all night, and next day till noon, with the utmost speed, but without overtaking the enemy. He therefore dismounted five hundred of his cavalry, placed the bravest of his foot, completely armed, on horseback; and commanding Attalus and Nicanor to pursue the great road which Bessus had followed, advanced in person with his chosen band by a nearer way, which was almost desert, and entirely destitute of water. The natives of the country were his guides. From the close of the evening

evening till day-break he had rode near fifty miles, when he first discovered the enemy flying in disorder, and unarmed. Probably to facilitate their own escape, Satibarzanes and Barzaentes stabbed Darius, and then rode away with Bessus, accompanied by six hundred horse. Notwithstanding the celerity of Alexander, the unhappy Darius expired before the conqueror beheld him⁵⁵. Darius was the last king of the house of Hytaspes, and the tenth in succession to the monarchy of Cyrus. That he was neither brave nor prudent, his conduct sufficiently evinces; but the uninterrupted chain of his calamities would have prevented him (had he been otherwise inclined) from imitating the injustice and cruelty of too many of his predecessors⁵⁶.

In this important stage of his fortune, Alexander displayed tender sympathy with affliction, warm esteem of fidelity, and just hatred of treason. He

Alexander
pursues
the mur-
derers of
Darius.

⁵⁵ Such is the simple narration of Arrian. The fictions related by Plutarch in *Alexand.* & *Curtius*, l. v. c. xii. & *Justin*, l. xi. c. xv. are inconsistent with each other, and all of them betray the desire to contrast the exaltation and depression of the fortune of Darius. "He was chained," says *Curtius*, "with golden fetters; but laid in a dirty cart, covered with raw hides." His harangue in praise of Alexander would be moral and affecting, were it not totally improbable.

⁵⁶ Arrian makes this judicious observation, which proves the futility of the Oriental traditions representing Darius as a monster of tyranny and cruelty. See *D'Herbelot. Bibl. Orientale*, art. *Darab.* p. 285. Should the fashionable scepticism of the times hesitate between these authorities, the reader has only to ask, what Oriental historian has related the transactions of Darius with the fulness and accuracy so conspicuous in Arrian?

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gave orders, that the body of Darius should be transported to Persia, and interred in the royal mausoleum. The children of the deceased prince were uniformly treated with those distinctions which belonged to their birth; and Barciné⁵⁷, his eldest daughter, was finally espoused by Alexander. The pardon of the Greek mercenaries, who were admitted into the Macedonian service, and the honourable reception of Artabazus and his sons, well became the character of a prince, who could discern and reward the merit of his enemies. Alexander then pursued the murderers of Darius through the inhospitable territories of the Arii and Zarangæi, and in two days accomplished a journey of six hundred furlongs. Having received the submission of Aornos⁵⁸ and Bactra, he passed the deep and rapid Oxus, and learned, on the eastern banks of this river, that Bessus, who had betrayed his master, had been betrayed in his turn by Spitamenes. The former was surprised by the Macedonians, and treated with a barbarity⁵⁹ better merited by his own crimes, than becoming the character of Alexander.

The Bactrian and Scythian war.

Spitamenes succeeded to his ambition and danger. In pursuit of this daring rebel, the resentment of Alexander hurried him through the vast

⁵⁷ Called by some writers Statira.

⁵⁸ We shall meet with another place of this name, between the Suastus and the Indus.

⁵⁹ He was stripped naked, whipped, shamefully mutilated, &c. Arrian arraigns those cruelties, as unworthy of the Grecian character: but he warmly approves the punishing of Bessus, and the other murderers of Darius.

but

but undescribed⁶⁰ provinces of Aria, Bactria, Sogdiana, and other less considerable divisions of the southern region of Tartary. The more northern and independent tribes of that immense country, whose pastoral life formed an admirable preparation for war, ventured to take arms against a conqueror who hovered on the frontier of their plains, and whose camp tempted them with the prospect of a rich plunder. The policy of Spitamenes inflamed their courage, and animated their hopes. These rude nations, and this obscure leader, proved the most dangerous enemies with whom Alexander ever had to contend. Sometimes they faced him in the field, and after obstinately resisting, retreated skilfully. Though never vanquished, Alexander obtained many dear-bought victories. The Scythians, on several occasions, surprised his advanced parties, and interrupted his convoys. The abruptness of their attack was only equalled by the celerity of their retreat; their numbers, their courage, and their stratagems, all rendered them formidable⁶¹. But the enlightened intrepidity, and ini-

CHAP.
XXXVIII.

Olymp.
cxii. 4.
cxiii. 1.
A. C. 328.
329.

⁶⁰ The erroneous geography of the ancients is laboriously compared with subsequent discoveries, in the learned work entitled *Examen des Anciens Historiens d'Alexandre*; and may be seen at one glance, by comparing the maps, usually prefixed to *Quintus Curtius*, with the admirable maps of D'Anville.

⁶¹ In one action, Arrian tells us, that only forty Macedonian horsemen, and three hundred foot, escaped. Arrian, l. iv. Curtius mentions another, after which it was made death to divulge the number of the slain. Curtius, l. vii. c. vii. Alexander was not present in either of these engagements; but in a third battle, related by Arrian, the Macedonians were at first repelled, many of them wounded, and the king struck with an arrow, which broke the fibula, or lesser bone of his leg. The Macedonians, however, rallied, and totally defeated the enemy. Arrian, l. iii. sub fin.

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mitable discipline of the Greeks and Macedonians, finally prevailed over Barbarian craft, and desultory fury. Not contented with repelling his enemies, Alexander crossed the Jaxartes, and defeated the Scythians ⁶² on the northern bank of that river. This victory was sufficient for his renown; and the urgency of his affairs soon recalled him from an inhospitable desert.

Alexander
finally re-
duces the

The provinces between the Caspian and the Jaxartes twice rebelled, and twice were reduced to

⁶² Before Alexander passed the Jaxartes, he received an embassy probably from the *Asian* Scythians. Their oration, omitted by all the Greek writers, is preserved in Curtius, l. vii. c. viii. It is remarkable for the bold elevated style, in which these Barbarians display their own advantages, and describe the destructive ambition of the invader. In both respects, it agrees with the admirable harangue of the Caledonian chieftain Galgacus, in Tacitus's Life of Agricola. But the glowing sentiments of those independent and high-minded nations are invigorated by the brevity of Tacitus, and weakened by the diffusiveness of Curtius. Both orations abound in metaphors. "Great trees," say the Scythians to Alexander, "require long time to grow: the labour of a few hours levels them with the ground. Take care, lest, in climbing to the top, you should fall with the branches which you have seized. Grasp Fortune with both your hands; she is slippery, and cannot be confined. Our countrymen describe her without feet, with hands only, and wings. Those to whom she stretches out her hand, she allows not to touch her wings. Rein your prosperity, that you may more easily manage it. Our poverty will be swifter than your army loaded with spoil. We range the plain and the forest; we disdain to serve, and desire not to command." The figurative style of the Scythians is sufficiently consonant to the manners of barbarous nations. See *Principii di Scienza nuova*, vol. i. p. 156, & seqq. See likewise Chapters fifth and sixth of the present History. Le Clerc, therefore, speaks with equal ignorance and severity, when, in arraigning the fidelity of Curtius, he says, "Scythæ ipsi, omnium literarum rudes, rhetorico calamistio inusti, in medium prodeunt." *Judic. Curt.* p. 326.

submission. The Barbarians fighting singly were successively subdued; their bravest troops were gradually intermixed in the Macedonian ranks; and Alexander, thus continually reinforced by new numbers, was enabled to overawe those extensive countries, by dividing his army into five formidable brigades, commanded by Hephæstion, Ptolemy, Perdiccas, Cænus⁶³, and himself. Near Gabæ, a fortress of Sogdiana, Cænus attacked and defeated Spitamenes. The Sogdians and Bactrians deserted their unfortunate general, and surrendered their arms to the conqueror. The Massagetæ and other Scythians, having plundered the camp of their allies, fled with Spitamenes to the desert; but being apprised, that the Macedonians prepared to pursue them, they slew this active and daring chief, whose courage deserved a better fate; and in hopes of making their own peace, sent his head to the conqueror.

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provinces
between
the Caspian
and the
Jaxartes.
Olymp.
cxiii. 2.
A.C. 327.

After the death of Spitamenes, the enemy feebly resisted Alexander in the open country; but in the provinces of Sogdiana and Parætacene, two important fortresses, long deemed impregnable, still bade defiance to the invader. Into the former, Oxyartes the Bactrian, who headed the *rebellion* (for so the Macedonians termed the brave defence of the Bactrians), had placed his wife and children. The rock was steep, rugged, almost inaccessible, and provided with corn for a long siege. The deep

Siege of
the Sog-
dian fort-
resses;
Olymp.
cxiii. 2.
A.C. 327.

⁶³ Artabazus, the faithful attendant of Darius, and afterwards the friend of Alexander, was joined in the command with Cænus, Arrian.

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snow, by which it was surrounded, increased the difficulty of assaulting it, and supplied the garrison with water. Alexander, having summoned the Bactrians to surrender, was asked in derision, Whether he had furnished himself with winged soldiers? This insolence piqued his pride; and he determined to make himself master of the place, with whatever difficulties and dangers his undertaking might be attended. This resolution was consonant to his character. His success in arms, owing to the resources of his active and comprehensive mind, sometimes encouraged him to enterprises, neither justified by necessity, nor warranted by prudence. Fond of war, not only as an instrument of ambition, but as an art in which he gloried to excel, he began to regard the means as more valuable than the end, and sacrificed the lives of his men to military experiments, alike hazardous and useless: yet, on the present occasion, sound policy seems to have directed his measures. Having determined soon to depart from those provinces, he might judge it imprudent to leave an enemy behind: it might seem necessary to destroy the seeds of future rebellion; and, by exploits unexampled and almost incredible, to impress such terror of his name, as would astonish and overawe his most distant and warlike dependencies.

which is
taken by a
contrivance
equally

Alexander carefully examined the Sogdian fortrefs, and proposed a reward of twelve talents⁶⁴ to the man who should first mount the top of the rock

⁶⁴ Above £ 2000, equal in value to near £ 20,000 in the present age.

on which it was situated. The second and third were to be proportionably rewarded, and even the last of ten was to be gratified with the sum of three hundred darics. The hopes of this recompence, which, in the conception of the Greeks and Macedonians, was equally honourable and lucrative, stimulated the love of adventure, so conspicuous in both nations. Three hundred men, carefully selected from the whole army, were furnished with ropes made of the strongest flax, and with iron pins used in pitching tents. They were likewise provided with small pieces of linen, which, being joined together, might serve as a signal. Thus equipped, they proceeded at the close of evening towards the most abrupt side of the rock, and therefore the most likely to be unguarded. By driving the iron pins into congealed snow, and then fastening to them the ropes, they gradually hoisted themselves up the mountain. In this extraordinary enterprise, thirty men perished, whose bodies were so profoundly buried in the snow, that, notwithstanding the most diligent search, they could never afterwards be recovered. By this simple contrivance, those daring adventurers gained the summit of the rock, which overlooked the fortress; and waving their signal in the morning, were discovered by Alexander. At this joyous sight, he summoned the besieged to surrender to his winged soldiers. The Barbarians beheld and trembled; terror multiplied the number of their enemies, and represented them as completely armed;

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Alexan-
der's ge-
nerous
treatment
of Roxa-
na.

ed; Alexander was invited to take possession of the fortress⁶⁵.

This obscure and even nameless castle contained Roxana, daughter of Oxyartes, and deemed, next to the spouse of Darius, the greatest beauty in the East. Alexander admired her form and her accomplishments; but even in the fervour of youth, and the intoxication of prosperity, his generous mind disdained the cruel rights of a conqueror, as justified by the maxims and example of his age and country. With a moderation and self-command, worthy the scholar of Aristotle, he declined the embraces of his captive, till his condescending affection raised her to the throne, choosing rather to offend the prejudices of the Macedonians, than to transgress the laws of humanity⁶⁶.

The fort-
ress of
Chorienes
surrenders.
Olymp.
cxiii. 2.
A.C. 327.

In Bactria, Alexander learned that the Parætacæ were in arms, and that many of his most dangerous enemies had shut themselves up in the fortress or rock of Chorienes. Upon this intelligence, he hastened to the Parætacene. The height of the rock, which was everywhere steep and craggy, he found to be near three miles, and its circumference above seven. It was surrounded by a broad and deep ditch, at such distance from the base as placed the garrison beyond the reach of missile weapons. Alexander gave orders that the fir trees, of extraordinary height, which surrounded the mountain, should be cut down, and formed into ladders, by means of which, his men de-

⁶⁵ Arrian, p. 91, & seqq.

⁶⁶ Id. *ibid*.

scending

ascending the ditch, drove huge piles into the bottom. These, being placed at proper distances, were covered with hurdles of osier consolidated with earth. In this occupation his whole army were employed by turns, night and day. The Barbarians at first derided this seemingly useless labour. But their insults were soon answered by Macedonian arrows. By these, and other missile weapons, the Macedonians, who were carefully protected by their coverings, so much annoyed the besieged, that the latter became desirous to capitulate. For this purpose, Chorieneſ, from whom the place derived its name, deſired to converſe with Oxyartes the Bactrian, who, ſince the taking of his wife and children, had ſubmitted to Alexander. His requeſt being granted, Oxyartes ſtrongly exhorted him to ſurrender his fortrefs and himſelf, aſſuring him of Alexander's goodneſs, of which his own treatment furniſhed an eminent example, and declaring that no place was impregnable to ſuch troops and ſuch a general. Chorieneſ prudently followed this advice; and, by his ſpeedy ſubmiſſion, not only obtained pardon, but gained the friendſhip of Alexander, who again entrusted him with the command of his fortrefs, and the government of his province. The vaſt magazines of corn, meat, and wine, collected by the Parætacæ for a long ſiege, afforded a ſeaſonable ſupply to the Macedonian army, eſpecially during the ſeverity of winter, in a country covered with ſnow many feet deep⁶⁷.

⁶⁷ Arrian, p. 92.

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The virtues displayed by Alexander in making and regulating his conquests.

By such memorable achievements, Alexander subdued the nations between the Caspian sea, the river Jaxartes, and the lofty chain of mountains, which supply the sources of the Indus and the Ganges. In the conduct of this remote and dangerous war, the great abilities of the general were conspicuously distinguished. His example taught the troops to despise hunger, fatigue, cold, and danger; neither rugged mountains, nor deep and rapid rivers, nor wounds, nor sickness, could interrupt his progress, or abate his activity: his courage exposed him to difficulties, from which he was extricated by new efforts of courage, which, in any other commander, would have passed for temerity. Amidst the hardships of a military life, obstinate sieges, bloody battles, and dear-bought victories, he still respected the rights of mankind, and practised the mild virtues of humanity. The conquered nations enjoyed their ancient laws and privileges; the rigours of despotism were softened; arts and industry encouraged; and the proudest Macedonian governors compelled, by the authority and example of Alexander, to observe the rules of justice towards their meanest subjects⁶⁸. To bridle the fierce inhabitants of the Scythian plains, he founded cities, and established colonies on the banks of the Jaxartes and the Oxus; and those destructive campaigns, usually ascribed to his restless activity and blind ambition, appeared to the discernment of this extraordinary man, not only

⁶⁸ Plutarch, Arrian, & Curtius, passim,

essential to the security of the conquests which he had already made, but necessary preparations for more remote and splendid expeditions which he still purposed to undertake; and which, as will appear in the succeeding chapter, he performed with singular boldness and unexampled success.

During the three first years that the invincible heroism of Alexander triumphed in the East, the firm vigilance of Antipater repressed rebellion in Greece. But the attention of that general being diverted; by a revolt in Thrace, from the affairs of the southern provinces, the Lacedæmonians, instigated by the warlike ambition of their king Agis, ventured to exert that hostility against Macedon which they had long felt and expressed. Reinforced by some communities of the Peloponnesus, which imprudently listened to their counsels, the allied army amounted to twenty-two thousand men. Antipater, having checked the insurrection in Thrace, hastened into the Grecian peninsula with a superior force, and defeated the confederates in a battle, which proved fatal to king Agis, and three thousand Peloponnesian troops. The vanquished were allowed to send ambassadors to implore the clemency of Alexander. From that generous prince, the rebellious republics received promise of pardon, on condition that they punished with due severity the authors of an unprovoked and ill-judged revolt⁶⁹.

From this period, till the death of Alexander, Greece enjoyed, above eight years, an unusual de-

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Commo-
tions in
Greece
checked
by Anti-
pater.
Olymp.
cxii. 3.
A.C. 330.

Tranquil-
lity of that
country

⁶⁹ Diodorus, l. xvii. p. 537. Curtius, l. vi, c. i.

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during the
subsequent
years of
Alexander's
reign.

gree of tranquillity and happiness. The suspicious and severe temper of Antipater was restrained by the commands of his master, who, provided the several republics sent him their appointed contingents of men to reinforce his armies, was unwilling to exact from them any farther mark of submission. Under the protection of this indulgent sovereign, to the glory of whose conquests they were associated, the Greeks still preserved the forms, and displayed the image, of that free constitution of government, whose spirit had animated their ancestors.

Ctesiphon
accused by
Æschines,
and de-
fended by
Demosthe-
nes.
Olymp.
cxii. 3.
A.C. 330.

While Alexander pursued the murderers of Darius, Athens was crowded with spectators from the neighbouring republics, to behold that intellectual conflict between Æschines and Demosthenes, whose rivalry in power and fame had long divided the affections of their countrymen. In consequence of a decree proposed by Ctesiphon, Demosthenes, as above mentioned, had been honoured with a golden crown, as the reward of his political merit. His adversary had, even before the death of Philip, denounced the author of this decree as a violator of the laws of his country.

1. Because he had decreed public honours to a man actually entrusted with the public money, and who had not yet passed his accounts. 2. Because, contrary to law, he had advised, that the crown conferred on Demosthenes, should be proclaimed in the theatre. 3. Because the boasted services of Demosthenes had ended in public disgrace and ruin; and that, instead of being rewarded with a crown,

crown, he ought to be punished as a traitor. Various circumstances, which it is now impossible to explain, prevented this important cause from being heard by the Athenians, till the sixth year of the reign of Alexander. The triumph of the Macedonians seemed to promise every advantage to Æschines, who had long been the partisan of Philip, and of his magnanimous son; and who, by a stroke aimed at Ctesiphon, meant chiefly to wound Demosthenes, the avowed enemy of both.

In the oration of Æschines, we find the united powers of reason and argument, combined with the most splendid eloquence. Yet the persuasive vehemence of Demosthenes prevailed in the contest. The unexampled exertions⁷⁰, by which he obtained this victory, will be admired to the latest ages of the world. To what an exalted pitch of enthusiasm must the orator have raised himself and his audience, when, to justify his advising the fatal battle of Chæronæa, he exclaimed, “No, my fellow-citizens, you have not erred; No! I swear it by the manes of those heroes who fought in the same cause at Marathon and Plataea.” What sublime art was required to arrive, by just degrees, at this extraordinary sentiment, which, in any other light than the inimitable blaze of eloquence with which it was surrounded, would appear altogether excessive and gigantic?

The orator not only justified Ctesiphon and himself, but procured the banishment of his adver-

Æschines
banished
for cal-
lumnny.

Generosity
of Demos-
thenes.

⁷⁰ See the Orat. de Coron. throughout.

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fary, as the author of a malignant and calumnious accusation. Honourable as this triumph was, Demosthenes derived more solid glory from the generous treatment of his vanquished rival. Before Æschines set sail, he carried to him a purse of money, which he kindly compelled him to accept; a generosity which made the banished man feel severely the weight of his punishment, and affectingly observe, "How deeply must I regret the loss of a country, in which enemies are more generous than friends elsewhere!" Æschines retired to the isle of Rhodes, and instituted a school of eloquence, which flourished several centuries. It is recorded, that having read to his scholars the oration which occasioned his banishment, it was received with extraordinary applause. But when this applause was redoubled on his reading the answer of Demosthenes, he was so far from testifying envy, that he exclaimed to his audience, "What would have been your admiration, had you heard the orator himself!"

His death.
Olymp.
cxiv. 3.
A.C. 322.

Demosthenes survived Alexander, whose magnanimity disdained to punish an enemy whom he scarcely regarded as dangerous. But this illustrious Athenian patriot fell a prey to the more suspicious policy of Antipater. At the desire of that prince, he was banished Athens, and being pursued by Macedonian assassins to the little island of Calauria, he ended his life by poison⁷¹.

The sentence of
the Athe-

It may be thought, that the conqueror of the Persian empire would have little leisure, or incli-

⁷¹ Plut. in Demosthen. & Lucian. Demosthen. Encom.

nation,

nation, to attend to a personal dispute between two Athenian orators: and that neither the impeachment nor the defence of Demosthenes could affect his pride or his interest. It deserves to be considered, however, that this orator was the inveterate, and long the successful, opponent of the greatness of his family; and in the beginning of his own reign, had attempted, with more courage, indeed, than prudence, to overturn the yet unconsolidated pillar of his fortune. But whatever indifference Alexander, who was carefully informed of the transactions of Greece, might testify amidst the honours of Demosthenes, it cannot be believed that he heard with total unconcern the sentence of the Athenian people; a sentence which reversed the decision of fortune, and arraigned the cruel and melancholy triumph of Philip over the liberties of Greece. That he never resented the indignity, is a proof of his moderation; and that the Athenians could venture on a measure so offensive, is a proof of the freedom and security which they enjoyed under the Macedonian government.

Deprived indeed of the honour, but also delivered from the cares, of independent sovereignty, and undisturbed by those continual and often bloody dissensions, which deform the annals of their tumultuous liberty, the Greeks indulged their natural propensity to the social embellishments of life; a propensity by which they were honourably distinguished above all other nations of antiquity. Their innumerable shows, festivals, and dramatic entertainments, were exhibited with more pomp than at

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nians in
favour of
Demosthe-
nes, ho-
nourable
to the mo-
deration of
Alexan-
der.

State of
Greece du-
ring the
latter years
of the
reign of
Alexan-
der.

any former period. The schools of philosophers and rhetoricians were frequented by all descriptions of men. Painting and statuary were cultivated with equal ardour and success. Many improvements were made in the sciences; and, as will appear more fully hereafter, the Greeks, and the Athenians in particular, still rivalled the taste and genius, though not the spirit and virtue, of their ancestors. Yet even in this degenerate state, when patriotism and true valour were extinct, and those vanquished republicans had neither liberties to love, nor country to defend, their martial honours were revived and brightened by an association with the renown of their conqueror. Under Alexander, their exploits, though directed to very different purposes, equalled, perhaps excelled, the boasted trophies of Marathon and Plataea. By a singularity peculiar to their fortune, the æra of their political disgrace coincides with the most splendid period of their military glory. Alexander was himself a Greek; his kingdom had been founded by a Grecian colony; and, to revenge the wrongs of his nation, he undertook and accomplished the most extraordinary enterprises recorded in the history of the world.

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Alexander's Indian Expedition.—Route pursued by the Army.—Aornos taken.—Nyssa and Mount Meros.—Alexander passes the Indus and Hydaspes.—Defeats Porus.—Founds Nicæa and Bucephalia.—Passes the Acesines and Hydraotes.—Sangala taken.—Eastern Boundary of Alexander's Conquests.—He sails down the Hydaspes.—Takes the Mallian Fortrefs.—His March through the Gedrosian Desert.—Voyage of Nearchus.—Alexander improves the internal State of his Conquests.—Incorporates the Barbarian Levies with the Greeks and Macedonians.—Intermarriages of the Europeans and Asiatics.—Artifices to prevent Alexander's Return to Babylon.—His Death, and Character.—Division of his Conquests—Subsequent History of Egypt and Syria.—The Western Division of Alexander's Empire conquered by the Romans.—State of Greece after the Age of Alexander.

BY just views of policy, rather than the madness of ambition, Alexander was carried to the rugged banks of the Oxus and the Iaxartes. The fierce nations of those inhospitable regions had, in ancient times, repeatedly over-run the more wealthy and more civilized provinces of Asia. Without diffusing through the Scythian plains the terror of his name, the conqueror would not have

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Alexander undertakes his Indian expedition. Olyn.p. cxliii. 2. A. C. 327.

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securely enjoyed the splendour of Susa and Babylon; nor without the assistance of numerous and warlike levies, raised in those barbarous countries, could he have prudently undertaken his Indian expedition. For this remote and dangerous enterprise, he prepared early in the spring; Amyntas being appointed governor of Bactria, and entrusted with a sufficient strength to overawe the surrounding provinces.

Traverses
the Paro-
pamisus.

With all the remainder of his forces, Alexander hastened southwards, and in ten days march traversed the Paropamisus, a link of that immense chain of mountains, reaching from the coast of Cilicia to the sea of China. This southern belt, distinguished in different portions of its length by the various names of Taurus, Paropamisus, Imaus, and Edmodus, the Greeks confounded¹ with the northern chain, of which Scythian Caucasus is a part, and whose remote branches extend from the shores of the Euxine to the eastern extremity of Tartary. Such is the strong frame which supports the ponderous mass of Asia. The intermediate space, especially towards the central country of Bukaria, is far more elevated than any other portion of the Eastern continent; and the towering heights of Paropamisus had hitherto defended (if we except the obscure expedition of Darius) the feeble majesty of India against the ravagers of the earth. The difficulties of this celebrated journey have,

¹ The errors of Diodorus, l. xvii. p. 553. and of Curtius, l. vii. c. iii. are avoided by Arrian, l. v. p. 103. and by Strabo, l. xv. p. 724.

perhaps,

perhaps, been rather exaggerated than described, by the historians of Alexander. Yet our indulgence may pardon the fanciful² expressions of antiquity, when we read in the work of a modern writer of acknowledged veracity, "Those mountains are covered with ice; the cold which I suffered was extreme; the country presents a melancholy image of death and horror³."

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But the rugged nature of the country was not the only difficulty with which the Macedonians had to struggle. The northern regions of India were inhabited in ancient, as they are still in modern times, by men of superior strength and courage⁴; and the vigorous resistance made by the natives of those parts, rendered it as difficult for Alexander to penetrate into the Indian peninsula by land, as it has always been found easy by the maritime powers of Europe, to invade and subdue the unwarlike inhabitants of its coasts.

Difficulty
of pene-
trating in-
to India by
land.

The experienced leader seems to have conducted his army by the route of Candahar, well known to the caravans of Agra and Ispahan. Having reached the banks of the Cophenes, he divided his forces; the greater part he retained under his immediate command; the remainder were detached, under Hephæstion and Perdikkas, to clear the road to the Indus, and to make all necessary preparations for crossing that river. After many severe conflicts,

Route pur-
sued by
Alex-
ander.

² Curtius, l. vii. c. iii.

³ See "le Voyage du Pere Desideri." It was performed in the year 1715. Lettres Edifiantes, xv. 185.

⁴ Arrian, p. 97, & seqq.

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he subdued the Aspii, Thyræi, Arafaci, and Asfaceni; scoured the banks of the Choas and Cophenes; expelled the Barbarians from their fastnesses; and drove them towards the northern mountains, which supply the sources of the Oxus and the Indus.

Aornos
taken.

Near the western margin of the latter, one place, defended by the Baziri, still defied his assaults. This place, called by the Greeks Aornos, afforded refuge not only to the Baziri, but to the most warlike of their neighbours, after their other strongholds had surrendered. From its description, it appears to have been admirably adapted to the purpose of a long and vigorous defence. Mount Aornos was two hundred furlongs in circuit; eleven in height, where lowest; accessible by only one dangerous path cut in the rock by art; containing, near the top, a plentiful spring of water, a thick and lofty wood, together with a sufficient quantity of arable land to employ the labour of a thousand men. An emulation of glory prompted Alexander to make himself master of a place, which fable described as impregnable to the greatest heroes of antiquity^s. By the voluntary assistance and direction of some neighbouring tribes, hostile to the Baziri, Ptolemy ascended part of the rock unper-

^s Arrian, p. 92. who supplies the particulars in the text, says, that he knows not whether it was the Grecian, Tyrian, or Egyptian Hercules, who laid siege unsuccessfully to Aornos. He doubts whether any of them ever penetrated to India; adding, that the name of Hercules appears to him to have been employed, on this occasion, as on many others, “*εἰς κομπήν τι λόγου*,” “as an ostentatious fiction.”

ceived;

ceived; Alexander with his usual diligence raised a mount, erected his engines, and prepared to annoy the enemy. But, before he had an opportunity to employ the resources of his genius, by which he had taken places still stronger than Aornos, the garrison sent a herald, under pretence of surrendering on terms, but in reality with a view to spin out the negotiation during the whole day, and in the night to effect their escape. Alexander, who suspected this intention, met their art with similar address. Patiently waiting till the Indians descended the mountain, he took possession of the strong-hold which they had abandoned, having previously posted a proper detachment to intercept the fugitives, and punish their perfidy.

The Macedonians proceeded southward from Aornos, into the country between the Cophenes and the Indus. In this fertile district, the army, as it advanced towards Mount Meros and the celebrated Nyfa, was met by a deputation from the citizens of that place, which (could we believe historic flattery) had been founded in the heroic, or rather in the fabulous ages, by a Grecian colony established by Bacchus at the eastern extremity of his conquests. These wandering *Greeks*, might we indulge for a moment the supposition that the inhabitants of Nyfa were really entitled to that name, appear in this Indian soil to have degenerated from the courage, while they preserved the policy, the eloquence, and the artifices, of their European brethren. Being immediately conducted to Alexander, who had just sat down in his tent, covered

Alexander
marches to
Nyfa and
Mount
Meros.

with sweat and dust, and still armed with his casque and lance, they testified great horror at his aspect, and threw themselves prostrate on the ground. The king having raised them from this humiliating posture, and addressed them with his usual condescension, they recovered sufficient boldness to entreat him to spare their country and their liberties for the sake of Bacchus their founder. In proof of this allegation, they insisted on the name Nyssa, derived from the nurse⁶ of Bacchus, and on the abundance, not only of vines and laurel, but of ivy, which grew in *their* territory, and in no other part of India. Alexander, willing to admit a pretension, which might attest to succeeding ages that he had carried his conquests still farther than Bacchus⁷, readily

⁶ The respect shewn by the Greeks to their nurses is well known, and is attested by the tragedians. In this respect, the modern Greeks still imitate their ancestors. The word employed to signify a nurse, properly denotes “a second mother.” See Mr. Guy’s *Voyage Litteraire de la Grèce*.

⁷ Eratosthenes the Cyrenean, and many other ancient writers, asserted, that the fictions concerning Bacchus’s expedition to the East, were invented by the flatterers of Alexander. But Strabo justly observes, that the belief of that expedition long preceded the age of the son of Philip. To justify this observation, he cites the verses of Sophocles and Euripides. The latter of these poets, in the prologue to his *Bacchæ*, introduces Bacchus, saying, that he had come to Thebes, and adorned with vines the temple of Semele.

Λιτών δὲ Λυδῶν τὰς πολυχρύσας γυῖας
 Φρυγῶν τε Περσῶν θ’ ἡλίοβλητης πλακάς,
 Βακτρυᾶ τε τειχῆς τὴν τε δυσχείμονι χθονᾷ
 Μῆδων, ἐπελθὼν Ἀραβίαν τ’ εὐδαιμόνα
 Ἀσίαν τε πᾶσαν, ἣ παρ’ αἰλμυραν αἶλα
 Κινται, μιγασὶν Ἕλλησι βαρβαροῖς θ’ ὅμιλῃ
 Πληθεῖς ἐχρῶσα καλλιπυργωτῆς πόλεις.

“ Leaving

readily granted their request. Having understood that Nyssa was governed by an aristocracy, he demanded, as hostages, an hundred of their principal citizens, and three hundred of their cavalry. This demand excited the smile of Acuphis, who headed the embassy. Alexander asked him, "At what he smiled?" He replied, "O king! you are welcome to three hundred of our horsemen, and more, should you think proper. But can you believe it possible that any city should long continue safe, after losing an hundred of its most virtuous citizens? Instead of one hundred of the best, should you be contented with two hundred of the worst, men in Nyssa, be assured that, at

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"Leaving the golden fields of the Lydians, the sun-beat plains of Phrygia and Persia, the Bactrian fortresses, and the wintry storms of the Medes—having over-run happy Arabia, and the maritime provinces of Asia, crowned with fair-turreted cities, inhabited by mingled Greeks and Barbarians." Sophocles mentions Nyssa in particular. Βροτοισι κλεινὴν Νύσσαν. Vide Strabo, l. xv. p. 687. Notwithstanding such respectable authorities for the vulgar tradition, both Strabo and Arrian treat the expedition of Bacchus to India as a fable; the geographer on the following grounds: 1. Because the relations of authors on this subject are totally inconsistent. 2. Because many of the writers who accompanied Alexander are altogether silent concerning this matter. 3. Because the intermediate countries, between Greece and India, possess no monuments of this pretended expedition. Strabo, p. 688. The philosopher and historian discovers his sentiments to be the same with Strabo's, but expresses himself with more tenderness for the popular superstition, concluding, "ἐκ ἀκριβοῦς ἐξετάσῃν χρη εἶναι τῶν ὑπὲρ τῶ θεῶ, ἐκ παλαιῶν, μεμυθευμένων;" "that the traditions of the ancients concerning the Gods ought not to be too carefully sifted." Arrian, p. 101. An observation which might have merited the attention of those who, in later times, have ventured to explain historically, or to analyze, the Grecian mythology.

your

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your return, you will find this country in as flourishing a condition as when you left it." Pleased with his address, Alexander remitted his demand of the magistrates; he was accompanied by the cavalry, and by the son and nephew of Acuphis, who were ambitious to learn the art of war under such an accomplished general.

Alexander
passes the
Indus, and
receives the
submission
of Taxiles.

The transactions which we have described, and a march of sixteen days from the Oxus to the Indus, allowed time for Hephæstion and Perdikkas to make the preparations necessary for passing the latter river, most probably by a bridge of boats^s. On the eastern bank, Alexander received the submission of the neighbouring princes. Of these, Taxiles, who was the most considerable, brought, besides other valuable presents, the assistance of seven thousand Indian horse, and surrendered his capital, Taxila, the most wealthy and populous city between the Indus and Hydaspes. But the

^s Arrian, p. 100 & 103. leaves it uncertain in what manner the bridge was constructed. Neither that accurate writer, nor the other careless describers of the exploits of Alexander, ascertain the pass of the Indus, at which the Macedonians crossed that river. Major Rennel, late surveyor-general of Bengal, has the following observations in his excellent memoir on the map of Indostan: "I take it for granted, that Alexander crossed the Indus at the place where the city of Attock now stands; as it appears to have been in all ages the pass on the Indus leading from the countries of Cabul and Candahar into India . . . Attock must then stand on the site of the Taxila of Alexander. From thence, as his intention seems to have been to penetrate by the shortest way to the Ganges, he would proceed by the ordinary road to that part of the bank of the Hydaspes (or Behat) where the fortress of Rotas now stands; and here he put in-execution his stratagem for crossing the river, whilst the opposite shore was possessed by Porus." Of which more in the text.

king, who never allowed himself to be outdone in generosity, restored and augmented the dominions of Taxiles.

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The army crossed the Indus about the time of the summer solstice, at which season the Indian rivers are swelled by heavy rains, as well as by the melted snow, which descends in torrents from Paropamisus. Trusting to this circumstance, Porus, a powerful and warlike prince, had encamped on the Shantrou, or Hydaspes, with thirty thousand foot, four thousand horse, three hundred armed chariots, and two hundred elephants. At an inconsiderable distance from the main body, his son commanded a detachment, consisting of the same kind of forces, which were all well accoutred, and excellently disciplined. Alexander perceived the difficulty of passing the Hydaspes in the face of this formidable host; a difficulty which must be greatly increased by the elephants, whose noise, and smell, and aspect, were alike terrible to cavalry. He therefore collected provisions on the opposite bank, and industriously gave out that he purposed to delay passing the river till a more favourable season. This artifice deluded not the Indians; and Porus kept his post. The king next had recourse to a different stratagem. Having posted his cavalry in separate detachments along the river, he commanded them to raise in the night loud shouts of war, and to fill the bank with agitation and tumult, as if they had determined at all hazards to effect their passage. The noise roused the enemy, and Porus conducted his elephants where-

Prepares to pass the Hydaspes, notwithstanding the opposition of Porus.

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wherever the danger threatened. This scene was repeated several successive nights; during which the Barbarians were fatigued and harassed by perpetual alarms. Porus discovering, as he fondly believed, that nothing was intended by this vain noise, but merely to disturb his repose, at length desisted from following the motions of the Macedonian cavalry, and remained quiet in his encampment, having stationed proper guards on the bank⁹.

Disposi-
tions for
that pur-
pose.

The false security of Porus enabled Alexander to effect his long-meditated purpose. At the distance of about eighteen miles from his camp, and at the principal winding of the Hydaspes, there stood a lofty rock, thickly covered with trees; and near to this rock, an island, likewise over-run with wood, and uninhabited. Such objects were favourable for concealment: they immediately suggested to Alexander the design of passing the river with a strong detachment, which he resolved to command in person, as he seldom did by others what he could himself perform; and, amidst the variety of operations, always claimed for his own, the task of importance or danger. The Macedonian phalanx, the new levies from Paropamisus, together with the Indian auxiliaries, and one division of the cavalry, remained under the command of Craterus. They had orders to amuse the enemy by making fires in the night, and by preparing openly during day-time to cross the Hydaspes. While

⁹ Arrian, l. v. p. 107, & seqq.

these operations were carrying on by Craterus, Alexander, having collected hides and boats, marched up the country with a choice body of light infantry, the archers and Agrians, the Bactrian, Scythian, and Parthian ¹⁰ cavalry, together with a due proportion of heavy-armed troops; the whole a well-assorted brigade, adapted to every mode of war required by the nature of the ground, the arms or disposition of the enemy. Having receded from the bank to a distance sufficiently remote for eluding the observation of Porus, he advanced towards the rock and island; and in this secure post prepared to embark, after taking such precautions against the vicissitudes of war and fortune, as could be suggested only by the most profound military genius. The orders given to Craterus were precise: should the Indians perceive, and endeavour to interrupt the passage to the rock and island, he was in that case to hasten over with his cavalry; otherwise not to stir from his post, until he observed Porus advancing against Alexander, or flying from the field. At an equal distance between the bank, where Alexander meant to pass, and the camp where Craterus lay, Attalus and Meleager were posted with a powerful body of mercenaries, chiefly consisting of Indian mountaineers, who had been defeated by the Macedonians, and taken into the pay of the conqueror. To provide for any unforeseen accident, sentinels

¹⁰ Arrian calls them the Dahæ; they were *ἰπποτοξοται*,
“archers on horseback.” Arrian, l. v. p. 109.

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The passage effected.

were placed along the bank, at convenient distances, to observe and repeat signals.

Fortune favoured these judicious dispositions. A violent tempest concealed from the enemy's out-guards the tumult of preparation; the clash of armour and the voice of command being overpowered by the complicated crash of rain and thunder. When the storm somewhat abated, the horse and infantry, in such proportions as both the boats and hides could convey, passed over, unperceived, into the island. Alexander led the line, accompanied in his vessel of thirty oars by Seleucus, Ptolemy, Perdikkas, and Lysimachus; names destined to fill the ancient world, when their renown was no longer repressed by the irresistible diffusion of their master's glory.

The king first reached the opposite bank, in sight of the enemy's out-guards, who hastened, in trepidation, to convey the unwelcome intelligence to Porus. The Macedonians meanwhile formed in order of battle; but before meeting their enemies, they had to struggle with an unforeseen difficulty. The coast on which they landed was the shore of another island, disjoined from the continent by a river commonly fordable, but actually so much swelled by the rains of the preceding night, that the water reached the breasts of the men, and the necks of the horses. Having passed this dangerous stream with his cavalry and targeteers, Alexander advanced with all possible expedition, considering, that should Porus offer battle, these
forces

forces would resist till joined by the heavy infantry; but should the Indians be struck with panic at his unexpected passage of the Hydaspes, the light-armed troops would thus arrive in time to attack and pursue them with advantage.

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Upon the first alarm given by his out-guards, Porus detached his son to oppose the landing of the enemy with two thousand horse, and one hundred and twenty armed chariots. These forces, arriving too late to defend the bank, were speedily broken and put to flight by the equestrian archers; their leader and four hundred horsemen were slain; most of the chariots were taken; the slime of the river, which rendered them unserviceable in the action, likewise interrupting their flight.

Porus's son
defeated
and slain.

The sad news of this discomfiture deeply afflicted Porus; but his immediate danger allowed not time for reflection. Craterus visibly prepared to pass the river, and to attack him in front; his flanks were threatened with the shock of the Macedonian horse, elated by recent victory. In this emergency the Indian appears to have acted with equal prudence and firmness. Unable to oppose this complicated assault, he left part of the elephants under a small guard, to frighten, rather than resist, Craterus's cavalry; while, at the head of his whole army, he marched in person to meet the more formidable division of the enemy, commanded by their king. His horse amounted to four, and his foot to thirty thousand; but the part of his strength in which he seemed most to confide, consisted of three hundred armed chariots, and

Disposi-
tions made
by Porus
for resisting
the enemy.

two

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two hundred elephants. With these forces, Porus advanced, until he found a plain sufficiently dry and firm for his chariots to wheel. He then arranged his elephants at intervals of an hundred feet; in these intervals he placed his infantry, a little behind the line. By this order of battle, he expected to intimidate the enemy, since their horse, he thought, would be deterred from advancing at sight of the elephants; and their infantry, he imagined, would not venture to attack the Indians in front, while they must be themselves exposed to be attacked in flank, and trampled under foot by those terrible animals. At either extremity of the line, the elephants bore huge wooden towers, filled with armed men. The cavalry formed the wings, covered in front with the armed chariots.

Skilful
manœuvres
of the
Macedoni-
an army.

Alexander by this time appeared at the head of the royal cohort and equestrian archers. Perceiving that the enemy had already prepared for battle, he commanded a halt, until the heavy-armed troops should join. This being effected, he allowed them time to rest and recover strength, carefully encircling them with the cavalry; and meanwhile examined, with his usual diligence, the disposition of the Indians. Upon observing their order of battle, he immediately determined, not to attack them in front, in order to avoid encountering the difficulties which Porus had artfully thrown in his way; and at once resolved on an operation, which, with such troops as those whom he commanded, could scarcely fail to prove decisive.

cifive. By intricate and fkilful manœuvres, altogether unintelligible to the Indians, he moved imperceptibly towards their left wing with the flower of his cavalry. The remainder, conducted by Cænus, ftretched towards the right, having orders to wheel at a given diftance, that they might attack the Indians in rear, fhould they wait to receive the fhock of Alexander's fquadrons. A thoufand equeftrian archers directed their rapid courfe towards the fame wing; while the Macedonian foot remained firm in their pofts, waiting the event of this complicated affault, which appears to have been conducted with the moft precise obfervance of time and diftance.

The Indian horfe, haraffed by the equeftrian archers, and expofed to the danger of being furrounded, were obliged to form into two divifions, of which one prepared to refift Alexander, and the other faced about to meet Cænus. But this evolution fo much difordered their ranks and dejected their courage, that they were totally unable to ftand the fhock of the Macedonian cavalry, which furpaffed them as much in ftrength, as it excelled them in difcipline. The fugitives took refuge, as behind a line of friendly towers, in the intervals that had been left between the elephants. Thefe fierce animals were then conducted againft the enemy's horfe; which movement was no fooner obferved by the infantry, than they feafonably advanced, and galled the affailants with darts and arrows. Wherever the elephants turned, the Macedonians opened their ranks, finding it dangerous

The battle
of the Hydaspes.

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to resist them with a close and deep phalanx. Meanwhile, the Indian cavalry rallied, and were repelled with greater loss than before. They again fought the same friendly retreat; but their flight was now intercepted, and themselves almost intirely surrounded, by the Macedonian horse; at the same time that the elephants, having lost their riders, enraged at being pent up within a narrow space, and furious, through their wounds, proved more formidable to friends than foes, because the Macedonians, having the advantage of an open ground, could every where give vent to their fury ¹¹.

The Indians defeated.

The battle was decided before the division, under Craterus, passed the river. But the arrival of these fresh troops rendered the pursuit peculiarly destructive. The unfortunate Porus lost both his sons, all his captains, twenty thousand foot, and three thousand horse. The elephants, spent with fatigue, were slain or taken; even the armed chariots were hacked in pieces, having proved less formidable in reality than appearance, could we believe that little more than three hundred men perished on the side of Alexander. An obvious inconsistency too often appears in the historians of that conqueror ¹². With a view to enhance his merit, they describe and exaggerate the valour and resistance of his enemies;

¹¹ Arrian, p. 112.

¹² See Arrian, p. 113. The observation applies not, however, to that historian, but rather to Ptolemy and Aristobulus, from whom he derived his materials; nor could it be expected that those generals should preserve perfect impartiality in relating the exploits of a master whom they admired.

but,

but, in computing the numbers of the slain, they become averse to allow this valour and resistance to have produced any adequate effects.

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Courage
and mag-
nanimity
of Porus.

The Indian king having behaved with great gallantry in the engagement, was the last to leave the field. His flight being retarded by his wounds, he was overtaken by Taxiles, whom Alexander entrusted with the care of seizing him alive. But Porus, perceiving the approach of a man, who was his ancient and inveterate enemy, turned his elephant, and prepared to renew the combat. Alexander then dispatched to him Meroë, an Indian of distinction, who, he understood, had formerly lived with Porus in habits of friendship. By the entreaties of Meroë, the high-minded prince, spent with thirst and fatigue, was finally persuaded to surrender; and being refreshed with drink and repose, was conducted to the presence of the conqueror. Alexander admired his stature (for he was above seven feet high) and the majesty of his person; but he admired still more his courage and magnanimity. Having asked in what he could oblige him? Porus answered, "By acting like a king." "That," said Alexander with a smile, "I should do for my own sake, but what can I do for your's?" Porus replied, "All my wishes are contained in that one request¹³." None ever

Rewarded
by Alex-
ander.

¹³ The modern histories of Alexander universally misrepresent this conference. All of them, as far as I know, make Porus say, "that he desires to be treated like a king:" an explanation which cannot be reconciled with Alexander's reply, Τὸτο μὲν εἶναι σοὶ Πῶρε βασιλῆα· σὺ δὲ ταῦτα νικᾷς ἐν τῇ σοὶ φίλοι ἀξίῃ?

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Founda-
tion of
Nicæa and
Bucepha-
lia.

ever admired virtue more than Alexander. Struck with the firmness of Porus, he declared him re-instituted on his throne; acknowledged him for his ally and his friend; and having soon afterwards received the submission of the Glausæ, who possessed thirty-seven cities on his eastern frontier, the least of which contained five thousand, and many of the greatest above ten thousand inhabitants, he added this populous province to the dominions of his new confederate. Immediately after the battle, he interred the slain, performed the accustomed sacrifices, and exhibited gymnastic and equestrian games on the banks of the Hydaspes. Before leaving that river, he founded two cities, Nicæa and Bucephalia; the former was so called, to commemorate the victory gained near the place where it stood; the latter, situate on the opposite bank, was named in honour of his horse Bucephalus¹⁴, who died there, worn out by age and fatigue. A large division of the army remained under the command of Craterus, to build and fortify these new cities.

“ I will act towards you, O Porus! as becomes a king, on my own account: but what do you desire that I should do on your’s?”

¹⁴ This generous animal, who had so long shared the toils and dangers of his master, had formerly received signal marks of royal regard. Having disappeared in the country of the Uxii, Alexander issued a proclamation, commanding his horse to be restored, otherwise he would ravage the whole country with fire and sword. This command was immediately obeyed. “ So dear,” says Arrian, “ was Bucephalus to Alexander, and so terrible was Alexander to the Barbarians.” Arrian, p. 114.

In

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XXXIX.Alexander
passes the
Acefines
and Hy-
draotes.

In promoting the success of Alexander, the fame of his generosity conspired with the power of his arms. Without encountering any memorable resistance, he reduced the dominions of another prince named Porus, and the valuable country between the Acefines and the Hydraotes. In effecting this conquest, the obstacles of nature were the principal, or rather the only, enemies, with whom he had to contend. The river Acefines, fifteen furlongs broad, is deep and rapid; many parts of its channel are filled with large and sharp rocks, which, opposing the rapidity of the stream, occasion loud and foaming billows, mixed with boiling eddies and whirlpools, equally formidable, and still more dangerous. Of the Macedonians, who attempted to pass in boats, many drove against the rocks, and perished; but such as employed hides, reached the opposite shore in safety. The Hydraotes is of the same breadth with the Acefines, but flows with a gentle current. On its eastern bank, Alexander learned that the Cathaei, Malli, and other independent Indian tribes, prepared to resist his progress. They had encamped on the side of the hill, near the city Sangala, two days march from the Hydraotes; and, instead of a breast-work, had fortified themselves with a triple row of carriages. Alexander advanced with his cavalry; the Indians stirred not from their post, but, mounting their carriages, poured forth a shower of missile weapons. Alexander perceiving the cavalry unfit for such an attack, immediately dismounted, and conducted a battalion of foot

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against the enemy. The lines were attacked, where weakest; some passages were opened; the Macedonians rushed in; and the Indians, being successively driven from their triple barrier, fled in precipitation to Sangala.

Sangala
besieged
and taken.

The walls of that place were too extensive to be completely invested. On one side, the town was skirted by a lake, long and broad, but not deep. Alexander suspecting that the Indians, intimidated by their former defeat, would attempt to escape in the night, caused the lake to be surrounded with his cavalry. This precaution was attended with success. The foremost of the Indians were cut to pieces by the advanced guards of the Macedonian horse; the rest escaped with difficulty to Sangala. Alexander then invested the greatest part of the town with a rampart and a ditch, and prepared to advance his engines to batter the walls, when he was informed by some deserters, that the enemy still resolved, that very night, to steal, if possible, through the lake; if not, to force their way with their whole strength. Upon this intelligence Alexander posted Ptolemy, the son of Lagos, with three thousand targeteers, one troop of archers; and all the Agrians, upon the spot where he sagaciously conjectured that the besieged would attempt to force their passage. At the first sound of the trumpet, the other commanders were to advance to the assistance of Ptolemy. Alexander declared his intention to share the common danger. By this judicious disposition, the enemy were

successfully repelled, after leaving five hundred men on the place. Meanwhile Porus, Alexander's principal ally in those parts, arrived in the camp with five thousand Indians, and a considerable number of elephants. Encouraged by this reinforcement, the Macedonians prepared to terminate the siege. The engines were got ready; the wall, built of brick, was undermined; the scaling-ladders were fixed; several breaches were made; and the town was taken by assault. Seventeen thousand Indians are said to have perished in the sack of Sangala; above seventy thousand were taken prisoners; Sangala was razed; its confederates submitted or fled. Above an hundred Macedonians fell in the siege or assault; twelve hundred were wounded.

The persevering intrepidity of Alexander thus rendered him master of the valuable country, now called the Punjab, watered by the five great streams whose confluence forms the Indus¹⁵. The banks of the Hyphasis, the most eastern of these rivers, which he actually intended to cross, allured by the flattering description of the adjoining territory,

Eastern
boundary
of Alex-
ander's
conquests.

¹⁵ The annals of the Gentoos distinguish Alexander by the epithets of Mhaahah, Dukkoyt, and Kooneah, "the great robber and assassin;" but most of the Oriental traditions are highly honourable to that prince, and extol his humanity not less than his prowess. The high idea entertained of him by the Indians, appears from their ascribing to his taste and magnificence, the most remarkable monuments scattered over their immense country. See l'Examen Critique, p. 143, & seqq. M. Anquetil's Zend-Avesta, t. i. p. 392. and Mr. Howell's Religion of the Gentoos, P. ii. p. 5.

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were adorned by twelve Macedonian altars, equal in height, and exceeding in bulk, the greatest towers in that country. These monuments, erected midway between Delhi and Lahor¹⁶, marked the extremity

¹⁶ Probably near the place where the great western road passes between those cities. See D'Anville *Geogr. Ancienne*, and Gibbon's *Hist.* vol. i. c. ii. Major Rennel, however, in his excellent *Memoir on the new Map of Hindostan*, assigns reasons for believing that Alexander was not so high up the river. "After crossing," says he, "the Acesines, or Jenaub, and the Hydraotes or Ravee, which latter he may be supposed to cross at the place where Lahor now stands, he appears to be drawn out of the direct route towards the Ganges, to attack the city of Sangala, most probably lying between Lahor and Moultan. From Sangala he proceeded to the Hyphasis, or Setlege, most probably between Adjodin and Debalpour, by the circumstance of the deserts lying between him and the Ganges; for the country between the Beath and the Ganges is fertile and well inhabited, but that between the lower parts of the Setlege and the Ganges, has really a desert in it, as Timur experienced in his march from Adjodin to Balnir. The distance between Alexander's position on the Hyphasis and the Jumma, as given by Pliny, accords with this opinion. He gives it as three hundred and thirty-six Roman miles, which, by a proper proportional scale, formed from his distances in known places, reaches from the banks of the Jumma to a point a little below the conflux of the Beath and Setlege. But had Alexander been as high up the river as the place where the great western road crosses from Lahor to Delhi, he would have been only two hundred and fifty such miles from the Jumma. This opinion is strengthened by the account of what happened immediately after; I mean his recrossing the Hydraotes, and then encamping on the bank of the Acesines, in a low situation, and where the whole country was flooded on the coming on of the periodical rains; which circumstance obliged him to move his camp higher up the river, into a more elevated country. This agrees perfectly with the description of the country. The lower parts of the courses of the Jenaub and Ravee are really through a low country; and these are also the parts nearest to Adjodin and Debalpour, between

extremity of Alexander's empire; an empire thus limited, not by the difficulties of the country, or the opposition of enemies, but by the immoveable and unanimous resolution of his European troops.

Invincible by his enemies, Alexander submitted to his friends, at whose desire he set bounds to his trophies in the East. But his restless curiosity prepared new toils and dangers for the army and himself. Having returned to the cities Nicæa and Bucephalia, he divided his forces, for the sake of exploring more carefully the unknown regions of India. Two divisions, respectively commanded by Craterus and Hephæstion (for Cænus was now dead), had orders to march southward along the opposite banks of the Hydaspes. Philip, to whom he had committed the government of the provinces adjacent to Bactria, was recalled with the troops under his command; and the whole Mace-

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Alexander
falls down
the Hydaspes, ac-
companied
by his
army.
Olymp.
cxlii. 3.
A. C. 326.

tween which places, I suppose, Alexander's altars were erected." It is rather unfortunate for this ingenious conjecture, that the desert on the eastern bank of the Hyphasis, between Alexander and the Ganges, is to be found only in the inaccurate compilation of Diodorus, l. xvii. p. 612. (whose narrative of Alexander's expedition is as much inferior to Arrian's, as his imperfect and inconsistent account of the expedition of the younger Cyrus, and the retreat of the ten thousand, is inferior to the admired Anabasis of Xenophon), and in the romantic description of Curtius, l. ix. c. ii. The existence of such a desert, at the extremity of Alexander's conquests, is contradicted by the circumstantial and satisfactory narrative of Arrian, l. v. p. 119. who says, "that the country beyond the Hyphasis was rich and fertile, the inhabitants industrious and brave; governed by a moderate aristocracy; flourishing in peace and plenty; possessing a great number of elephants, and those of superior strength and stature."

donian

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donian conquests in India, including seven nations and above two thousand cities, were subjected to the dominion of Porus. Meanwhile the Ionians, Cyprians, Phœnicians, and other maritime nations, who followed the standard of Alexander, industriously built, or collected, above two thousand vessels", for sailing down the Hydaspes till

" " It may appear extraordinary," says Mr. Rennel, " that Alexander should, in the course of a few months, prepare so vast a fleet for his voyage down the Indus; especially as it is said to be the work of his army. But the Punjab country, like that of Bengal, is full of navigable rivers, which communicating with the Indus, form an uninterrupted navigation from Cashmere to Tatta, and no doubt abounded with boats and vessels ready constructed to the conqueror's hands. I think it probable too, that the vessels in which Nearchus performed his coasting voyage to the Gulph of Persia, were found in the Indus. Vessels of one hundred and eighty tons burden are sometimes used in the Ganges; and those of one hundred not unfrequently." It is worthy of observation, that this judicious conjecture of Mr. Rennel is justified by the words of Arrian. In speaking of the number of vessels, he says, *και ὅσα ἄλλα ποταμια, η των παλαι κλοντων κατα της ποταμης, η εν τω τοτε πεινηθεντων*, p. 124. The vessels employed by Alexander appear, therefore, to have been partly collected on the Indian rivers, and partly constructed for the occasion. They were, 1. Long ships, for the purpose of war; 2. Round ships, for carrying provisions, baggage, &c.; and, 3. *ιππαγωγα πλοια*, vessels for transporting horses. Mr. Rennel's conjecture can only relate to the ships of burden. That the two other kinds were built by the Ionians and islanders, appears from Arrian, p. 124 & 181. The account of Alexander's embarkation, given in Arrian's expedition of Alexander, as well as in his Indian history, is inconsistent with the relation of Curtius, l. ix. c. iii. with that of Diodorus, l. xvii. p. 563. and that of Justin, l. xii. c. ix. The narrative of Arrian is, however, confirmed by Strabo, l. xv. p. 1023. That accurate geographer informs us, that the fleet was constructed near the cities which Alexander had built on each side the Hydaspes; and that the timber, chiefly pine, fir, and cedar, was brought from a wood near to Mount Emodus.

its

its junction with the Indus, and thence along that majestic stream to the Indian ocean. On board this fleet the king embarked in person with the third division of his forces. His navigation employed several months, being frequently retarded by hostilities with the natives, particularly the warlike tribe of the Malli. These Barbarians were driven from the open country; their cities were successively besieged and taken; but, at the storm of their capital, a scene was transacted, which would have indicated madness in any other general, and which betrayed temerity even in Alexander.

When their streets were filled with the enemy, the Malli took refuge in their citadel. This fortress was defended by a thick wall, which being thrown around the declivity of a mountain, was extremely lofty without, but towards the inner circumference of an inconsiderable height. Alexander, provoked by the obstinacy of the Indians, commanded the scaling-ladders to be applied with all possible expedition. But this service being performed more tardily than usual, the king, in his anger, snatched a ladder from one who carried it, and having fastened it to the wall, mounted with rapidity in defiance of the enemy's weapons. The Macedonians, alarmed by the danger of their general, followed in such numbers, that the ladder broke as Alexander reached the summit; the same accident happened to other ladders which were hastily applied, and injudiciously crowded. For some moments, the king thus remained alone on the wall, conspicuous by the brightness of his arms,

Extraordinary adventure in besieging the Mallian fortress.

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arms, and the extravagance¹⁸ of his valour, exposed to thick volleys of hostile darts from the adjacent towers. His resolution was more than daring. At one bound he sprang into the place, and posting himself at the wall, slew the chief of the Malli, and three others, who ventured to assault him. Meanwhile Abreas, Leonnatus, and Peucestas, the only Macedonians who had got safe to the top of the wall, imitated the example of Alexander. Abreas was wounded and fell; his companions, regardless of their own safety, defended the king, whose breast had been pierced with an arrow. They were soon covered with wounds, and Alexander seemed ready to expire. By this time, the Macedonians had burst through the gates of the place. Their first concern was to carry off the king; the second to revenge his death, for they believed the wound to be mortal, as breath issued forth with his blood. Some report, that the weapon was extracted by Critodemus of Cos; others, that no surgeon being near, Perdiccas, of the life-guards, opened the wound with his sword, by his master's command. The great effusion of blood threatened his immediate dissolution; but a seasonable swooning retarded the circulation of the fluids, stopped the discharge of blood, and saved the life of Alexander. The affectionate admiration in which he was held by his troops, appeared in their

¹⁸ Τῇ ἀτοπῇ τῆς τολμῆς; literally, "the absurdity of his valour," could our idiom admit such an expression; ἀτοπος properly signifies "what has no place in nature." It is commonly translated *absurd*, but may here mean *supernatural*.

gloomy sadness during his danger, and their immoderate joy at his recovery¹⁹.

Having performed his intended voyage to the ocean, and provided necessaries for a long march, Alexander determined to proceed towards Persepolis, through the barren solitudes of Gedrosia. This arduous design was not inspired by an idle ambition to surpass the exploits of Cyrus and Semiramis, whose armies were said to have perished in those deserts, but prompted by the necessity of supplying with water, the first European fleet which navigated the Indian sea, explored the Persian gulph, and examined the mouths of the Euphrates and the Tigris. This important voyage was performed, and afterwards related, by Nearchus²⁰, whose enterprising genius was worthy of the master whom he served. In discovering the sea and the land, the fleet and army of Alexander mutually assisted each other. By the example of the king, both

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Marches
through
the Gedro-
sian desert.
Olymp.
cxiii. 4.
A.C. 325.

Voyage of
Nearchus.

¹⁹ The extraordinary adventure related in the text, is said by Curtius, l. ix. c. iv. to have happened in storming a city of the Oxydracæ. Lucian (Dial. mort.) & Pausan. (Attic.) agree with Curtius. But these are feeble authorities, compared with Arrian, l. vi. p. 127, & seqq. & Strabo, l. xvii. p. 1026.

²⁰ Nearchus was a native of Crete, but had long resided in Amphipolis. The journal of his celebrated voyage from the mouth of the Indus to that of the Euphrates, is preserved in Arrian's Indian history, from c. xx. to c. xli. inclusively. Seven months were employed in this voyage, during three of which the fleet kept the sea. Nearchus sailed in the month of September, and arrived in April in the Euphrates. Plin. Nat. Hist. l. vi. c. xxiii. The relation of this illustrious admiral has been called in question by Dodwell, Hardouin, and others: but its authenticity is confirmed by the incomparable D'Anville. See Recherch. Geog. sur le Golfe Persique, Acad. des Inscrit. t. xxx. p. 133.

were

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were taught to despise toil and danger. On foot, and encumbered with his armour, he traversed the tempestuous sands of the Persian coast, sharing the hunger, thirst, and fatigue of the meanest soldier²¹; nor was it till after a march of two months, distinguished by unexampled hardships, that the army emerged into the cultivated province of Carmania.

Alexander is joined in Carmania by various divisions of his army.

In this country Alexander was met by a division of his forces, which he had sent under the command of Craterus through the territories of the Arii and Drangæ. Stafanor and Phrataphernes, governors of those warlike nations, and of the more northern provinces of Parthia and Hyrcania, brought a seasonable supply of camels and other beasts of burthen, to relieve the exigencies of an army enfeebled by disease and exhausted by fatigue. The waste of men, occasioned by this destructive expedition²², was repaired by the ar-

²¹ Parties were continually employed, on all sides, in searching for water. On one occasion, they were more unfortunate than usual; the heat of the sun was excessive, and reflected by the scorching sand; Alexander marched on foot, parched with thirst, exhausted by fatigue, and oppressed by care. Amidst these distressful circumstances, some soldiers discovering a small quantity of turbid water, brought it in great haste to the king. He received the present with thanks, then poured it on the ground; and the water, thus spilt, refreshed not only Alexander, but the whole army. -Arrian, p. 141.

²² Plutarch says, that the march through Gedrosia cost Alexander near one hundred thousand men; a palpable exaggeration, since he supposes the whole army, at their departure from India, to have amounted to one hundred and twenty thousand foot, and fifteen thousand horse; of which one division embarked with Nearchus, and another marched, under the command of Craterus, through the territories of the Arii and Drangæ; little more than a third part of the whole number entered the Gedrosian deserts.

rival

rival of numerous battalions from Media, which rendered the standard of Alexander sufficiently respectable. Cleander and Sitalus, the commanders of those forces, were accused by the Medes of despoiling their temples, ransacking their tombs, and committing other detestable deeds of avarice and cruelty. Their own soldiers confirmed the accusation; and their crimes were punished with death. This prompt justice gave immediate satisfaction, and served as a salutary example in future; for, of all the rules of government, practised by this illustrious conqueror, none had a stronger tendency to confirm his authority, and consolidate his empire, than his vigilance to restrain the rapacity of his lieutenants, and to defend his subjects from oppression²³.

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He punishes the misconduct of his generals.

Among the fables which give the air of romance to the memorable exploits of Alexander, we may reckon the triumphant procession through Carmania. In imitation of Bacchus, Alexander is said to have traversed this province, amidst dancing and music, crowned with flowers, intoxicated with wine, and allowing the utmost extravagance of disorder and folly to himself and his followers²⁴. The revel continued seven days, during which a

Improbable account of the march through Carmania.

²³ Και τὸτο, εἰπερ τι ἄλλο, κατεσχεν ἐν κόσμῳ τὰ ἔθνη τὰ ἐξ Ἀλεξάνδρου, δορυαλῶτα, ἢ ἱκόντα προσχωρήσαντα, τούτοις μὲν πληθεύοντα, τοσοῖσι δὲ ἀλλήλων ἀφίστηκοντα ὅτι οὐκ ἔστιν ὑπὸ τῇ Ἀλεξανδρῶν βασιλείᾳ ἀδικησθαι τῆς ἀρχομένης ὑπὸ τῶν ἀρχόντων. Arrian, l. vi. p. 143.
“ This, especially, kept in awe the nations that were either subdued by Alexander, or that voluntarily submitted to him (numerous and remote as they were); that, under the reign of this prince, the governors durst not injure the governed.”

²⁴ Plut. in Alexand. Diodor. p. 573.

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small body of sober men might have overwhelmed this army of bacchanals, and avenged the cause of Darius and of Asia²⁵. Were not this improbable fiction discountenanced by the silence of contemporary writers²⁶, it would be refuted by its own absurdity. Instead of yielding to the transports of mad joy, Alexander, whose heart was extremely susceptible of compassion, must have been deeply afflicted by the recent loss of so many brave men; nor did the necessity of his affairs, to which he was ever duly attentive, admit of unseasonable delay.

Punishment of
the govern-
ors of
Babylon,
Persepolis,
and Susa.

Encouraged by the long absence of their master, and the perils to which his too adventurous character continually exposed his life, Harpalus, Orsines, and Abulites, who were respectively governors of Babylon, Persepolis, and Susa, began to despise his orders, and to act as independent princes, rather than accountable ministers. In such emergencies, Alexander knew by experience the advantage of celerity. He therefore divided his army. The greater part of the heavy-armed troops were entrusted to Hephæstion, with orders to proceed along the sea-coast, and to attend the motions of the fleet commanded by Nearchus. With the remainder, the king hastened to Pasargadæ. Orsines was convicted of many enormous crimes, which were punished with as enormous severity²⁷.

²⁵ Curtius, l. ix. c. x.

²⁶ Arrian informs us, that neither Ptolemy nor Aristobulus make the least mention of this extraordinary transaction, which he treats with proper contempt. Vid. Arrian, p. 143.

²⁷ Arrian, who excuses Alexander's adopting the Persian manners, repeatedly blames him for imitating the Barbarian punishments.

Baryaxes,

Baryaxes, a Mede, who had assumed the royal tiara, suffered death; his numerous adherents shared the same fate. The return of Alexander from the East proved fatal to Abulites, and his son Oxathres, who, during the absence of their master, had cruelly oppressed the wealthy province of Susiana, and particularly the inhabitants of the capital. Harpalus, whose conduct at Babylon had been no less flagitious, escaped with his treasures to Athens: the avarice of the Athenians engaged them to receive this wealthy fugitive; but their fears forbade them to harbour the enemy of Alexander. By a decree of the people, he was expelled from Attica, and this traitor to the most generous of princes seems himself to have been soon afterwards treacherously slain²⁸. The brave Peucestas, who had saved Alexander's life at the assault of the Mallian fortress, was promoted to the government of Persia. In this important command, he proved his wisdom to be equal to his valour.

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Peucestas
rewarded.

²⁸ Comp. Curtius, l. x. c. ii. Plut. in Demosthen. Diodor. l. xviii. p. 19. Strabo, l. xvii. p. 576. But all these writers omit the first crime of Harpalus, mentioned by Arrian, the pardon of which does great honour to the clemency of Alexander. Harpalus, even in the life-time of Philip, had gained the friendship of his illustrious son, who, soon after mounting the throne, employed him as his treasurer. But, before the battle of Issus, this unworthy minister betrayed his trust, and fled to Megara. Alexander, unwilling hastily to condemn an old friend, who had for his sake incurred the resentment of Philip, ascribed the misconduct of Harpalus to the bad counsels of Tauriscus, a daring villain, who had accompanied his flight. After the death of Tauriscus, he prevailed on Harpalus again to return to his service, and again entrusted him with the custody of his treasures. Arrian, l. iii. c. vi.

CHAP. XXXIX. By conforming to the customs, adopting the manners, and using the language of the vanquished, he acquired the affectionate respect of the people committed to his care. His pliant condescension, directed by sound policy, was highly approved by the discernment of Alexander; but his affectation of foreign manners greatly offended the pride of his Macedonian countrymen.

Alexander improves the internal state of his conquests. Olymp. cxliii. 4. A.C. 325.

In the central provinces of his empire, which from time immemorial had been the seat of Asiatic pomp and luxury, Alexander spent the last, and not the least glorious, year of his reign. In the nervous language of antiquity, the world was silent in his presence; and his only remaining care was to improve and consolidate his conquests. For these important purposes, he carefully examined the course of the Eulæus, the Tigris, and the Euphrates; and the indefatigable industry of his troops was judiciously employed in removing the weirs, or dams, by which the timid ignorance of the Assyrian and Persian kings had obstructed the navigation of those great rivers. But Alexander, having no reason to dread fleets of war, wished to invite those of commerce. The harbours were repaired; arsenals were constructed; a basin was formed at Babylon sufficient to contain a thousand galleys. By these and similar improvements, he expected to facilitate internal intercourse among his central provinces, while, by opening new channels of communication, he hoped to unite the wealthy countries of Egypt and the East, with the most remote regions of the earth. His ships were sent to explore

plore the Persian and Arabian gulphs. Archias brought him such accounts of the former, that he determined to plant its shores with Grecian colonies. Hieron of Soli proceeded farthest in examining the Arabian coast; but he found it impossible to double the southern extremity of that immense peninsula, and still more to remount (as he had been commanded by Alexander) to the city Hieropolis, in Egypt. This daring enterprise seemed to be reserved for the king in person. It is certain, that, shortly before his death, he took measures for examining this great southern gulph, as well as for discovering the shores of the Caspian Sea, which was then believed to communicate with the Northern Ocean²⁹.

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Sends vessels to explore the Persian and Arabian gulphs.

But objects, less remote, demanded his more immediate attention. In the winter season, the waters of the Euphrates, which produce the extraordinary fertility of Assyria³⁰, are confined within their lofty channel. But in spring and summer, and especially towards the summer solstice, they overflow their banks, and, instead of watering, would totally deluge the adjacent territory, unless the superfluous fluid were discharged into the great canal of Pallacopas. This artificial river, formed, it is said, by Nebuchadnezzar, commences an hundred miles below Babylon. It is not fed by springs, nor replenished from mountain snows, but branching from the great trunk of the Eu-

Restrains the inundations of the Euphrates.

²⁹ Arrian, l. vii. p. 158.

³⁰ "This country," according to Strabo, "is more fertile than any other; producing, it is said, three hundred fold." Strabo, p. 1077.

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phrates, moderates its too impetuous stream, by diverting it into the sea, through lakes and marshes, by various, and, for the most part, invisible outlets. But this useful contrivance finally defeated its own purpose. The Pallacopas gradually sunk into its soft and oozy bed, and the Euphrates, which even originally was much higher than this canal, continued to flow into the new channel, even after the season when its waters cease to rise by the melting of the Armenian snows. This diminution of the river rendered it insufficient to water the fields of Assyria; an inconvenience severely felt in a country almost unacquainted with rain. The governors of Babylon attempted unsuccessfully to remedy the evil, whose magnitude justly excited the attention of Alexander. From war, the mother of arts, he had learned to improve the benefits of peace. While preparations were making for more distant expeditions, he sailed down the Euphrates; carefully examined the nature of the soil; and having discovered, at the distance of about four miles from the inosculation of the Euphrates and Pallacopas, a hard and rocky bottom, he commanded a canal to be cut there, which served to moderate the inundations at one season, without too much draining the waters at another. Having performed this essential service to Assyria, he followed the course of the Pallacopas, and surveyed the lakes and marshes, which guard the Arabian frontiers. In the neighbourhood of his new canal, he observed a convenient situation for a city, which, being built and fortified, was peopled with those superannuated Greeks, who seemed no longer capable

Builds a
city near
the canal
of Pallacopas.

capable of military service, and with such others of their countrymen as thought proper to settle in this fertile, though remote country³¹.

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Animated by a zeal for public happiness, Alexander thus traversed the populous provinces of the East, and successively visited the imperial cities of Persopolis, Susa, Ecbatana, and Babylon. These places, and others of inferior note, were adorned with signal marks of his taste, and respectively distinguished by transactions which discover the boldest, yet most enlightened, views of policy. The important design of uniting, by laws and manners, the subjects of his extensive monarchy, was ever present to his mind. For this purpose, he took care to incorporate in his Barbarian armies the Greeks and Macedonians. In each company, or rather in each division of sixteen, he joined four Europeans to twelve Asiatics. In the Macedonian squadrons and battalions, he intermixed, on the other hand, such of the Barbarians as were most distinguished by their strength, their activity, and their merit. Soon after the battle of Arbela, he had given orders to raise new levies in the conquered provinces. The Barbarian youth delighted in the Grecian exercise and discipline, and rejoiced at being associated to the glory of their victors. On the banks of the Tigris, Alexander was joined by a powerful body of those recruits, whose improvements in arts and arms fully answered his expectations, and justly rewarded his foresight. The arrival of such numerous auxiliaries enabled him to

Incorpo-
rates the
Barbarian
levies with
the Greeks
and Ma-
cedonians.

³¹ Arrian, ubi supra.

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discharge at Opis, a city on the Tigris, such Greeks and Macedonians as were tired of the service, worn out with age, or enfeebled by sickness. After an interesting scene, which we shall have occasion to describe, he dismissed those respectable veterans, loaded with wealth and honours. They were conducted by Craterus, whom he appointed to succeed Antipater in the administration of his European dominions; and Antipater, who had long executed that important trust with equal prudence and fidelity, was commanded to join his master with new levies from Greece, Thrace, and Macedon³².

Pays the
debts of
his sol-
diers.

At Susa, Alexander learned that his soldiers, indulging the extravagance too natural to their profession, had contracted immense debts, which they had neither ability nor inclination to pay. Upon this intelligence, he issued orders that each man should give an exact account of what he owed, with the names of his creditors, declaring, that he was determined to satisfy them at his own expence. The troops suspected an intention, merely to discover their characters, and to learn their œconomy or profusion. At first, therefore, many denied, and all diminished, their debts. But Alexander issued a second declaration, "That it became not a prince to deceive his people, nor a people to suppose their prince capable of deceit." Faithful lists were immediately presented, and the whole debts discharged, to the amount, it is said, of four millions sterling.

³² Arrian, ubi supra.

This event was accompanied by a transaction of a different kind, which discovers, however, the same spirit, and which equally endeared Alexander to his Asiatic subjects. In the royal place of Susa, he publicly espoused Barciné³³, the daughter of Darius; and bestowed her sister Drypetis on his friend Hephæstion, saying, that he wished their children to be kinsmen. By the advice of their master, Perdicas, Seleucus, Ptolemy, and other generals, intermarried with the most illustrious of the vanquished Barbarians. The soldiers were encouraged by presents, and by the hope of royal favour, to follow the example of their leaders; and it appeared from the catalogue of their names, presented to the king, that above ten thousand Greeks and Macedonians married Asiatic women³⁴.

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Intermarriages of the Europeans and Asiatics.

In all the cities which he visited, he was careful to celebrate the musical and gymnastic games; those distinguishing fruits of Grecian culture, which being adapted to gratify the senses, as well as to please the fancy, were beheld with delight even by the most ignorant Barbarians. Convinced that no-

Alexander prepares to exhibit dramatic entertainments at Ecbatana. Olymp. cxiiv. 1.

³³ Called Statira by Curtius, Justin, and Plutarch.

³⁴ Plutarch, seizing the true spirit of these regulations, exclaims, *Ὁ βασιλεὺς Ξέρξης, καὶ ἀνοήτης, καὶ μάτην πολλὰ περὶ τὴν Ἑλλησποντίαν ποτιθεὶς γεφυραν, ὅπως ἐμφροεῖς βασιλεῖς Ἀσίαν Ἑυρώπῃ συνάπτουσι, καὶ ξυλοῖς, καὶ σχεδίασι, καὶ ἀψυχοῖς καὶ ἀσυμπαθεσὶ δεσμοῖς, ἀλλ' ἐρωτὶ νομιμῇ, καὶ γάμοις σὺνφροσὶ, καὶ κοινωνίαις παιδῶν τὰ γένη συνάπτοντες.* “O! barbarous and foolish Xerxes, thou who labouredst in vain to throw a bridge over the Hellespont, it is thus that wise kings join Asia to Europe, not by boards, ships, lifeless and insensible bonds, but by lawful love, chaste nuptials, and the indissoluble tie of common progeny.” Plut. Orat. i. de Fortun. Alexand. See likewise above, vol. i. c. ix. p. 420.

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Death of
Hephaestion

thing has a more direct tendency to unite and harmonise the minds and manners of men, than public entertainments and common pleasures, Alexander determined to introduce and diffuse the amusements of the theatre. For this purpose above three thousand players and musicians, collected from all parts of Greece, assembled in Ec-batana, the capital of Media, which was chosen for the scene of those theatrical exhibitions³⁵. But the sickness and death of Hephæstion changed this magnificent spectacle into melancholy obsequies. In the moment of his triumph, the king was deprived of his dearest friend³⁶. This irreparable loss, he felt and expressed with an affectionate ardour congenial to his character, and justified his immoderate sorrow by the inconsolable³⁷ grief of Achilles for the fate of his beloved Pa-

³⁵ It should seem from Plutarch, that the entertainments of the theatre were soon diffused through other parts of Asia.

Ἀλέξανδρος τὴν Ἀσίαν ἐξημερεύοντος, Ὅμηρος ἢ ἀναγνώσμα, καὶ Περσῶν καὶ Σηθιαίων καὶ Γεδρασιῶν παῖδες τὰς Εὐριπίδου καὶ Σοφοκλέους τραγωδίας ᾤδον.

“Alexander, having tamed Asia, Homer was read in the East; the children of the Persians, Sufians, and Gedrosia, recited the tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides.” Plut. *ibid*.

³⁶ Next to Hephæstion, Craterus seems to have enjoyed the greatest share of Alexander's confidence; yet he often said, “Craterus loves the king, Hephæstion loves Alexander.” Plutarch in *Alexand*. In passing through the Troade, Alexander crowned the tomb of Achilles, and Hephæstion that of Patroclus. *Ælian*, Var. Hist. xii. 7.

³⁷ If, in the melancholy shades below,

The flames of friends and lovers cease to glow,

Yet mine shall sacred last; and, undecay'd,

Burn on through death, and animate my shade.

Pope's *Iliad*.

troclus.

troclus. During three days and nights after the death of Hephæstion, Alexander neither changed his apparel nor tasted food. A public mourning was observed throughout the empire. Funeral games were celebrated in the great cities; the royal cohort was commanded thenceforward to retain the name and banner of Hephæstion³⁸; and the lofty genius of Stasicrates erected at Ecbatana a monument worthy of *him*, whom the obsequious oracle of Ammon declared deserving of *heroic* worship. To appease the grief of Alexander, his lieutenants dedicated their armour at the tomb of his friend. The example was given by Eumenes, the king's secretary, who shortly before Hephæstion's death, had offended this illustrious favourite; a man who long and uninterruptedly enjoyed, without abusing in any one instance, the confidence of his master; who exercised power without pride, and enforced discipline without severity; whose conduct merited at once public respect and royal favour, and whose virtues disarmed envy³⁹.

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His obsequies and honours.

³⁸ According to Plutarch, Stasicrates proposed to form Mount Athos into a statue of Alexander, grasping a city with one hand, and with the other discharging a river into the sea. Plut. in Alexand. Vitruvius, l. ii. in Proem. & Lucian, t. ii. p. 489, ascribe this design to Dinocrates. Alexander extolled the boldness of the artist, but added, Εἰ δὲ μένεν τὸν Ἀθῶν κατὰ χεῖραν ἄρχει γὰρ ἑὸς βασιλέως ἐνυβρίζοντος εἶναι μνημεῖον. "Let alone Mount Athos; it is enough that it is the monument of one king's folly already;" alluding to the event related above, vol. i. c. ix. p. 420.

³⁹ Arrian, p. 156. tells us, that concerning the funeral honours of Hephæstion, innumerable and absurd fictions were invented by the friends and by the enemies of Alexander; nay, what is extraordinary, the same falsehoods were sometimes authorized by both; the former intending thereby to extol the warmth of his friendship, the latter to expose his extravagance and folly.

To

C H A P.
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Alexander
reduces
and chastises the
Cossæans.

To moderate and divert his sorrow, Alexander, who in the practice of war found at once business and amusement, undertook an expedition in person, which perhaps would otherwise have been committed to the valour of his lieutenants. The Cossæans, a fierce and untractable nation, inhabited the southern frontier of Media. Secure amidst their rocks and fastnesses, they had ever defied the arms of the Persians; and the degenerate successors of Cyrus had judged it more prudent to purchase their friendship than to repel their hostility. In their annual journey from Babylon to Ec-batana, the pride of these magnificent but pusillanimous princes condescended to bestow presents on the Cossæans, that they might procure an undisturbed passage for themselves and their train; and this impolitic meanness only increased the audacity of the mountaineers, who often ravaged the Sufian plains, and often retired to their fastnesses, loaded with the richest spoils of Media. Alexander was not of a temper patiently to endure the repetition of such indignities. In forty days, he attacked, defeated, and totally subdued this rapacious and warlike tribe. The Cossæans were driven from their last retreats, and compelled to surrender their territory. After obtaining sufficient pledges of their fidelity, the conqueror allowed them to ransom their prisoners, and at his departure from their country, took care to erect such fortresses as seemed necessary for bridling, in future, the dangerous fury of this headstrong people ⁴⁰.

In

⁴⁰ Such is the account of this expedition given by Arrian, l. vii. p. 157. and confirmed by Strabo, l. xi. p. 795. and by Diodorus,

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XXXIX.Glory of
Alexander.

In returning from this successful expedition towards the banks of the Euphrates, Alexander was met by ambassadors from Carthage, Spain, and Italy, as well as from many inland countries of Asia and Africa, extending from Mount Imaus to the southern extremity of Æthiopia. It was then, says his historian, that he appeared master of the world, both to his followers and to himself; and, as if the known parts of it had been insufficient to satisfy his ambition, he gave orders to cut timber in the Hyrcanian forest, with a design to build ships, and explore the undiscovered shores of the Caspian and Arabian seas. But neither these lofty designs, nor the glory of war, nor the pomp of royalty, which, of all princes, Alexander enjoyed in the greatest splendour⁴¹, could appease his grief

His melancholy.

rus, l. xvii. p. 577. Plutarch, on the other hand, most unwarrantably and absurdly tells us, that Alexander, to divert his grief, took the amusement of *man-hunting*, and massacred the whole Cossæan nation, without distinction of age or sex. Plut. p. 94.

⁴¹ Vid. Athen. l. x. p. 436. & l. xii. p. 537—541. We may believe that Alexander's tent contained an hundred couches; that the pillars which supported it were encrusted with gold; that he gave audience, surrounded with guards, and seated on a golden throne. In the language of antiquity, "the master of both continents" found it necessary to unite the pomp of the East with the arts of Greece. But when Athenæus tells us of the precious essences, the fragrant wines, the effeminacy, and vices, of Alexander, we discover the credulous, or rather criminal sophist, who has collected into one work all the vices and impurities which disgraced his country and human nature. To the unwarranted assertions of the obscure writers cited by an Ælian (l. ix. c. iii.) and an Athenæus, we can oppose the authority of an Arrian and a Plutarch.—Could he who so severely censured the effeminate and luxurious life of Agnon and Philotas, be himself effeminate and luxurious? "Of all men," says Arrian, "Alexander was the most æconomical in what regarded his private pleasures." Arrian, l. vii. p. 167.

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for the loss of Hephæstion. The death of his beloved friend is said, by Arrian, to have hastened his own. It certainly tinged his character with a deep melancholy, which rendered him susceptible of such impressions as the firmness of his manly soul would otherwise have resisted and repelled.

Artifices
to prevent
his return
to Baby-
lon.

He, who had so often employed superstition as an instrument of policy, began himself to fall a prey to that miserable passion. The servants of princes, ever quick in discerning, and dexterous in turning to their own profit, the foibles of their masters, soon discovered and abused the weakness of Alexander. Alarmed at the severe treatment of several of his colleagues, Apollodorus, a citizen of Amphipolis, who had been entrusted with the government of Babylon, practised with his brother Pythagoras, a diviner; and the latter, ambitious to promote the greatness of his family, pretended to perceive in the victims evident marks of divine displeasure against the king, should he enter the gates of Babylon. Notwithstanding this menace, Alexander, after reducing the Cossæans, approached towards that city with his army. He was met by a long train of Chaldæan priests, who conjured him to change his resolution, because they had received an oracle from Belus, declaring that his journey thither would prove fatal. The interest of the Chaldæans conspired with the views of Apollodorus. The temple of Belus, a stupendous edifice, situate in the heart of Babylon, had been very richly endowed by the Assyrian kings. But the produce of the consecrated ground,
I
instead

instead of being applied to its original destination of repairing the temple, and offering sacrifices to the Gods, had, ever since the impious reign of Xerxes, been appropriated by the Chaldæan priests. Alexander, it was well known, intended to reform this abuse; and, although his mind was not altogether unmoved by the admonition of the priests, he discerned their interested motives, and answered them by a verse of Euripides, "He's the best prophet that conjectures best." Foiled in their first attempt, the Chaldæans had recourse to another artifice. Since the king had determined at every hazard to visit Babylon, they entreated him at least not to enter it on the eastern side, but to fetch a compass round, and to march with his face towards the rising sun. He prepared to comply with this advice; but the marshiness of the soil rendered his design impracticable; and he was thus reluctantly compelled to enter the city by the forbidden road.

During his short stay at Babylon, his mind was disturbed by superstitious fears⁴², awakened by the intrigues of Apollodorus, or the artifices of the Chaldæans, and confirmed by a circumstance well fitted to operate on a disordered fancy. In his Indian expedition, he had conversed with the Gymnosophists, or Brachmans, men who *practised* the philosophy which Plato *taught*, and whose contempt for the pomp and pleasures of the present life, was founded on the firm belief of a better and more permanent state of existence. To those sages,

His short stay in that city disturbed by superstitious fears.

Tenets of the Indian Brachmans.

⁴² He became, says Plutarch, δειδωπύς πρὸς τὸ θεῖον.

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Prophecy
and death
of Calanus.

the fortunate ambition of Alexander appeared an object of derision or pity. At sight of the conqueror, they stamped their feet with vehemence on the ground; indicating, by an expressive action, more eloquent than words, that he, whose name now filled the world, must soon be confined within the narrow grave. The flatterers of the king rebuked them for insulting the son of Jupiter, who had the power to reward or punish them. They replied, by saying, "That all were the sons of Jupiter; that the rewards of Alexander they disdained, and set at defiance his punishments, which at last could only relieve them from the load of frail mortality." Yet Calanus, one of their number, allured by curiosity, or irresistibly captivated by the soothing condescension of the king, agreed to accompany him; for which inconstancy he was much blamed by his companions. Alexander treated this eastern sage with great respect, and when Calanus, who had passed his seventy-second year without experiencing any bodily infirmity, fell sick in Persia, the affectionate prince earnestly entreated him not to anticipate fate by a voluntary death. But finding him inflexibly bent on this purpose, he allowed a pyre to be constructed, to which the Indian (being too feeble to walk or ride on horseback) was conveyed in a litter. In sight of the Macedonian army, who had been ordered to assist at this uncommon solemnity, Calanus composed himself decently on the pyre; the music struck up; the soldiers raised a shout of war; and the Indian, with

with a serene countenance, expired amidst the flames, singing a hymn to the Gods of his country. CHAP.
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The curiosity of Alexander was unbounded; but his humanity likewise was great. This principle, which is too often a stranger to the breast of conquerors, made him decline witnessing the extraordinary death of a friend, who, for his sake, had abandoned his native land. But before Calanus was carried to the funeral pile, the king affectionately paid him the last visit. Calanus having embraced all present, refused to take leave of Alexander, saying, that “he should again see him in Babylon.” The words of a dying man were considered by the Greeks as prophetic. Those of Calanus sunk deep into the mind of Alexander; and the painful impression which they made, hastened his departure from a city, in which so many concurring circumstances forbade him to reside.

His superstitious terrors, however, seem to have been diverted by the voyage down the Euphrates, and by directing the improvements in the canal of Pallacopas. Having resumed his courage, he ventured to return to Babylon, gave audience to some Grecian ambassadors, who presented him with golden crowns from the submissive flattery of their several republics; and having reviewed his troops and galleys, prepared to execute the enterprises which he had so long meditated. But his designs and his life were now drawing to a close. Whether to conquer his melancholy, or to triumph in the victory which he had already gained over it, he indulged, without moderation, in that banqueting and

Death of
Alexander
at Baby-
lon.
Olymp.
cxiv. 1.
A.C. 324.
May 28th.

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XXXIX.

and festivity to which, after the fatigues of war, he had often shewn himself too much addicted; and a fever, occasioned, or at least increased, by an excessive abuse of wine, the vice of his nation and of his family, put a period to his life in the thirty-third year of his age, and in the thirteenth of his reign. After the first days of the disorder, he had been conveyed to the cool verdure of a beautiful garden; but the malady increasing he was soon brought back to the palace. The last remains of strength, he spent in assisting at daily sacrifices to the Gods. During his illness he spoke but little, and that only concerning his intended expeditions. The temples were crowded by his friends; the generals waited in the hall; the soldiers surrounded the gates. Such was the grief of many, and the respectful admiration of all, that none ventured to announce to him his approaching dissolution, none ventured to demand his last orders. When all hopes of recovery had vanished, his favourite troops were admitted to behold him. He was speechless, but had still strength to stretch forth his hand⁴³.

⁴³ Arrian says, that many reports were spread concerning the death of Alexander, such as, that he had been poisoned by the emissaries of Antipater, whom, as mentioned above in the text, he had recently deprived of the government of Greece and Macedon; that when asked to whom he bequeathed the empire, he had answered, to the "strongest;" and that he had foretold his obsequies would be celebrated by bloody wars among his lieutenants. But these rumours receive not the least countenance from the royal diary, which seems to have been carefully copied by Arrian, nor from the histories of Ptolemy and Aristobulus.

Such

Such was the reign of Alexander, whose character, being unexampled and inimitable, can only be explained by relating his actions. He was of a low stature, and somewhat deformed; but the activity and elevation of his mind animated and ennobled his frame. By a life of continual labour, and by an early and habitual practice of the gymnastic exercises, he had hardened his body against the impressions of cold and heat, hunger and thirst⁴⁴, and prepared his robust constitution for bearing such exertions of strength and activity, as have appeared incredible to the undisciplined softness of modern times. In generosity and in prowess, he rivalled the greatest heroes of antiquity; and in the race of glory, having finally outstripped all competitors, became ambitious to surpass himself. His superior skill in war gave uninterrupted success to his arms; and his natural humanity, enlightened by the philosophy of Greece, taught him to improve his conquests to the best interests of mankind⁴⁵. In his extensive dominions, he built, or

⁴⁴ Plut. Orat. i. & ii. de Fortun. Alexand.

⁴⁵ Plutarch says, the nations conquered by Alexander might adopt the language of Themistocles, when, in consequence of his banishment from Greece, he was raised to great wealth and honour in Asia. “Ω παῖδες ἀπωλομένα, εἰ μὴ ἀπωλομένα.” “O my children! we should have been undone, had we not been undone.” In the same manner, those nations, had they not been vanquished by Alexander, had not been civilized, Egypt would not boast her Alexandria, Mesopotamia her Seleucia, &c. And again, “Alexander taught marriage to the Hyrcanians, and agriculture to the Arachosii. He taught the Sogdians to maintain and not to kill, their parents; the Persians to respect, and not to marry, their mothers; the Scythians to bury, and not to eat, their dead.” Plut. *ibid*.

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founded, not less than seventy cities⁴⁶, the situation of which being chosen with consummate wisdom, tended to facilitate communication, to promote commerce, and to diffuse civility through the greatest nations of the earth⁴⁷. It may be suspected, indeed, that he mistook the extent of human power, when, in the course of one reign, he undertook to change the face of the world; and that he miscalculated the stubbornness of ignorance, and the force of habit, when he attempted to enlighten barbarism, to soften servitude, and to transplant the improvements of Greece into an African and Asiatic soil, where they have never been known to flourish. Yet let not the designs of Alexander be too hastily accused of extravagance. Whoever seriously considers what he actually performed before his thirty-third year, will be cautious of determining what he might have accomplished, had he reached the ordinary term of human life. His resources were peculiar to himself; and such views, as well as actions, became him, as would have become none besides. In the language of a philosophical historian, “ he seems to have been given to the world by a peculiar dispensation of Providence, being a man like to none other of the human kind⁴⁸.”

From

⁴⁶ Vid. Plut. de Fortun. Alexand. tit. ii. p. 327. In the language of Plutarch, he *sowed* Asia with Greek cities.

⁴⁷ Plut. ibid. Diodor. Sicul. xvii. 83. Stephan. Byzant. in voc. Αλεξάνδρεια.

⁴⁸ Οὐδέ μοι ἐξω τῷ θεῷ φῦναι αἰ δοκεῖ αὐτῇ ὑδενὶ ἀλλω ἀνθρώπων εἰκῶς. Arrian, p. 168. How far he was an instrument in the hands of
Divine

From the part which his father Philip and himself acted in the affairs of Greece, his history has been transmitted through the impure channels of exaggerated flattery, or malignant envy. The innumerable fictions, which disgrace the works of his biographers, are contradicted by the most authentic accounts of his reign, and inconsistent with those public transactions, which concurring authorities confirm. In the present work, it seemed unnecessary to expatiate on such topics, since it is less the business of history to repeat, or even to expose errors, than to select and impress useful truths. An author, ambitious of attaining that purpose, can seldom indulge the language of general panegyric. He will acknowledge, that Alexander's actions were not always blameless; but, after the most careful examination, he will affirm, that his faults were few in number, and resulted from his situation rather than from his character.

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The faults
or crimes
of which
he is ac-
cused

From the first years of his reign, he experienced the crimes of disaffection and treachery, which multiplied, and became more dangerous, with the extent of his dominions, and the difficulty to govern them. Several of his lieutenants early aspired at independence; others formed conspiracies against the life of their master. The first criminals were treated, as we have already seen, with a lenity becoming the generous spirit of Alexander. But when Philotas, the son of Parmenio, and even

resulted
from his
situation
rather than
from his
character.

Olymp.
cxlii. 4.
A.C. 329.

Divine Providence, belongs not to the subject of prophane history to enquire. On this subject, the reader may see Bishop Lowth on Isaiah, xix. 18. and xxiv. 14.

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Parmenio⁴⁹ himself, afforded reason to suspect their fidelity; when the Macedonian youths, who, according to the institution of Philip, guarded the royal pavilion, prepared to murder their sovereign⁵⁰, he

⁴⁹ Philotas was punished in the country of the Arii; Parmenio was put to death in Media. Curtius (l. vi. c. vii. & seqq.), who has given the fullest account of these executions, says, that Philotas deserved not the compassion of his friends: "*Amicorum misericordiam non meruit.*" He leaves it uncertain whether Parmenio fell a sacrifice to his own treason, or to the policy of Alexander. Arrian thinks, that the death of Parmenio was necessary to his master's safety.—Although the evidence of this general's guilt has not been handed down to posterity, Alexander, it is certain, believed him guilty. He who disdained to conquer his enemies by deceit, cannot, without proof, be supposed capable of treacherously assassinating his friends.

⁵⁰ This conspiracy is related by Arrian, l. iv. c. xiii. and xiv. The scene was Bactra, or Zariafpa, the capital of Bactria. At a hunting-match, the king, being ready to kill a boar, was anticipated by Hermolaus. To punish the insolence of the youth, Alexander ordered him to be whipped. The disgrace seemed intolerable to Hermolaus and his companions; a conspiracy was formed to destroy Alexander in his sleep. It was discovered by Ptolemy, the son of Lagus. The youths confessed their guilt, and declared that they had been confirmed in their purpose by Callisthenes, the scholar of Aristotle, an arrogant and morose man, who, sheltered by the cloak of philosophy, insolently browbeat the prince, whom he was bound to respect (Arrian, p. 871.). The conspirators were stoned to death; a punishment common in that age, when persons accused were tried before numerous assemblies, whose indignation frequently burst forth, and destroyed atrocious offenders on the spot, with the first instruments of death that chance offered to their hands. Callisthenes was dragged round the army in chains. Such is the best authenticated account of this affair, concerning which the variations of ancient writers are innumerable. Vid. Arrian, l. iv. c. xiv. Curtius, l. viii. c. viii. Seneca Suasor, i. Justin, l. xv. c. iii. Philostratus, l. viii. c. i. Diodor. Sicul. pp. 356 & 358. Diogen. Laert. in Aristot. Suidas, ad voc. As an example of the injustice done the

he found it necessary to depart from his lenient system, and to hold with a firmer hand the reins of government. Elated by unexampled prosperity, and the submissive reverence of vanquished nations, his loftiness disgusted the pride of his European troops, particularly the Macedonian nobles, who had been accustomed to regard themselves rather as his companions than subjects. The pretensions which sound policy taught him to form and to maintain, of being treated with those external honours ever claimed by the monarchs of the East, highly offended the religious prejudices of the Greeks, who deemed it impious to prostrate the body, or bend the knee, to any mortal sovereign. Yet had he remitted formalities consecrated by the practice of ages, he must insensibly have lost the respect of his Asiatic subjects. With a view to reconcile the

the character of Alexander, I shall insert the passage of Seneca: “Hoc est Alexandri crimen æternum, quod nulla virtus, nulla bellorum felicitas redimet. Nam quoties quis dixerit, Occidit Persarum multa millia; opponitur, et Callisthenem. Quoties dictum erit, omnia oceano tenuis vicit, ipsam quoque tentavit novis classibus, & imperium ex angulo Thraciæ usque ad orientis terminos protulit; dicetur, sed Callisthenem occidit.” Yet this Callisthenes was a traitor, whose writings are mentioned with contempt by Arrian. loc. citat. Polybius, t. ii. pp. 64. 335. & t. iii. p. 45. Cicero ad Quint. Frat. l. ii. epist. xiii. & Longinus, c. iii. p. 14. The patriotism of the Greeks, and the envy of the Romans, could never forgive the transcendant glory of Alexander, which eclipsed their own. In speaking of Philip and his son, even Cicero (de Offic.) says, “Alter semper magnus, alter sæpe turpissimus.” See likewise Livy, l. ix. c. xviii. The last-mentioned writer (l. ix. c. xvii.) goes out of his way to allege very inconclusive arguments for believing, that had Alexander turned his arms against Italy, he would have certainly been conquered by the Romans.

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discordant principles of the victors and vanquished, he affected an immediate descent from Jupiter Ammon, a claim liberally admitted by the avarice or fears of the Libyan priests, and which, he had reason to expect, could not be very obstinately denied by the credulity of the Greeks and Macedonians, who universally acknowledged that Philip, his reputed father, was remotely descended from the Grecian Jupiter. But the success of this design, which might have entitled him, as son of Jupiter, to the same obeisance from the Greeks, which the Barbarians readily paid him as monarch of the East, was counteracted, at first by the secret displeasure, and afterwards by the open indignation, of several of his generals and courtiers. Nor did the conduct of Alexander tend to extricate him from this difficulty. With his friends, he maintained that equal intercourse of visits and entertainments, which characterised the Macedonian manners; indulged the liberal flow of unguarded conversation; and often exceeded that intemperance in wine, which disgraced his age and country.

Murder of
Clitus.
Olymp.
cxiii. 1.
A.C. 328.

On such occasions his guests, or entertainers, enjoyed and abused the indecent familiarity to which they had been accustomed with their kings; but which the temper of Alexander, corrupted by prosperity and flattery, was no longer able to endure. A scene of drunken debauchery, which must appear highly disgusting to the propriety of modern manners, proved fatal to Clitus, who, emboldened by wine, daringly insulted his prince, vilified his noblest actions, and derided his pretensions

to

to divinity. The king, being likewise intoxicated, was no longer master of himself, when Clitus, who had been once carried from his presence, returned a second time to the charge, and behaved more insolently than before. In an unhappy moment, Alexander thrust a spear into the breast of his friend⁵¹; but instantly repenting his fury, would have destroyed himself by the same weapon, had he not been prevented by his attendants. The bitterness of his repentance, and the pungency of his remorse, which neither flattery could soften, nor sophistry appease⁵², rendered his life burdensome, and his actions inconsistent. At times, he assumed the Persian dress and ornaments; displayed the pomp of Oriental despotism; employed, and often preferred, the Barbarians; and, in several passages of his reign, this successful, but unhappy, conqueror appears to have been beset with flatterers, surrounded by conspirators, adored by the

⁵¹ Montesquieu, who (Voltaire only excepted) is the most distinguished modern apologist of Alexander, says, "Il fit deux mauvaises actions; il brula Persepolis & tua Clitus." (*Esprit des Loix*, l. x. c. xiv.) The story of the burning of Persepolis we have already refuted. The death of Clitus, Aristobulus, cited by Arrian, ascribes entirely to the insolence and folly of Clitus himself, and totally exculpates Alexander. But Arrian observes, like a philosopher, that Alexander was justly blameable in allowing himself to be overcome by drunkenness and anger. Arrian, p. 84.

⁵² Agis, an Argive poet, and Anaxarchus the Sophist, endeavoured to cure his melancholy. The latter told him, that Justice was described by the ancients as seated near the throne of Jupiter, to indicate that right and wrong depended on the will of kings, all whose actions ought to be held just by themselves and others. This flagitious servility Arrian spurns with indignation, and brands with infamy. Arrian, p. 84.

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Difficul-
ties of
Alexan-
der's situ-
ation, and
the mag-
nanimity
by which
he over-
came
them.

passive submission of his eastern subjects, and insulted by the licentious petulance of the Greeks and Macedonians.

The indignation or jealousy of the latter tinged the fairest of his actions with dark and odious colours. About a year before his death, a scene was transacted at Opis on the Tigris, which shews the difficulties of his situation, and the magnanimity by which he overcame them. Having assembled the Macedonian troops, he declared to them his pleasure, that such as felt themselves unable, through age or infirmities, to undergo the fatigues of war, should be honourably discharged from the service, and safely conducted to their respective provinces. This proposal, which ought to have been accepted with gratitude, was heard with disgust. The soldiers reflected, that the army had recently increased by an accession of thirty thousand Barbarians, armed and accoutred after the European fashion, trained to the Grecian discipline and exercises, and instructed in the arts and language of the victors. The king, they thought, no longer cared for the service of his veterans, and therefore dismissed them with contempt. The spirit of sedition seized the camp; the Macedonians unanimously demanded their discharge; some adding with scoffs, "That he had no farther use for *them*; his father Ammon could fight his battles." At these words, the king sprung from the rostrum on which he stood, and commanded the most audacious to be seized by his targeteers, and conducted to immediate execution. This prompt severity

verity appeased the rising tumult. The soldiers remained motionless and silent, doubtful or terrified. Alexander again mounted the rostrum, and spoke as follows: "It is not my design, Macedonians, to change your resolution. Return home, without hindrance from me. But, before leaving the camp, first learn to know your king and yourselves. My father Philip (for with him it is ever fit to begin) found you, at his arrival in Macedon, miserable and hopeless fugitives; covered with skins of sheep; feeding among the mountains some wretched herds, which you had neither strength nor courage to defend against the Thracians, Illyrians, and Treballi. Having repelled the ravagers of your country, he brought you from the mountains to the plain, and taught you to confide, not in your fastnesses, but in your valour. By his wisdom and discipline, he trained you to arts and civility, enriched you with mines of gold, instructed you in navigation and commerce, and rendered you a terror to those nations, at whose names you used to tremble. Need I mention his conquests in Upper Thrace, or those still more valuable in the maritime provinces of that country? Having opened the gates of Greece, he chastised the Phocians, reduced the Theſſalians, and, while I shared the command, defeated and humbled the Athenians and Thebans, eternal foes to Macedon, to whom you had been ſucceſſively tributaries, ſubjects, and ſlaves. But my father rendered you their maſters; and having entered the Peloponneſus, and regulated at diſcretion the affairs of that peninsula,

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His own
account of
the reign
of Philip
and him-
self.

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peninsula, he was appointed, by universal consent, general of combined Greece; an appointment not more honourable to himself, than glorious for his country. At my accession to the throne, I found a debt of five hundred talents, and scarce sixty in the treasury. I contracted a fresh debt of eight hundred; and conducting you from Macedon, whose boundaries seemed unworthy to confine you, safely crossed the Hellespont, though the Persians still commanded the sea. By one victory we gained Ionia, Æolia, both Phrygias, and Lydia. By our courage and activity, the provinces of Cilicia and Syria, the strength of Palestine, the antiquity of Egypt, and the renown of Persia, were added to your empire. Yours now are Bactria and Aria, the productions of India, the fertility of Assyria, the wealth of Susa, and the wonders of Babylon. You are generals, princes, satraps. What have I reserved for myself, but this purple and diadem, which mark my pre-eminence in toil and danger! Where are my private treasures⁵³? Or why should I collect them? Are *my* pleasures expensive? You know that I fare worse than many of yourselves; and have in nothing spared my person. Let him, who dares, compare with me. Let him bare his breast, and I will bare mine. My body, the fore part of my body, is covered with honourable wounds from every sort of weapon. I often watch,

⁵³ It appears from Arrian, that Alexander speaks of these, as distinct from the military fund, and other revenues, employed in paying and rewarding his troops, and in executing such public designs as seemed conducive to the prosperity of the empire.

that you may enjoy repose; and, to testify my unremitting attention to your happiness, had determined to send home the aged and infirm among you, loaded with wealth and honour. But since you are all desirous to leave me, Go! Report to your countrymen, that, unmindful of the signal bounty of your king, you entrusted him to the vanquished Barbarians. The report, doubtless, will bespeak your gratitude and piety⁵⁴."

Having thus spoken, he sprang from the rostrum, and hastened to the palace, accompanied only by his guards. During two days, none were admitted to his presence. On the third, he called the Persian nobles of distinction, and distributed among them the principal departments of military command. He then issued orders, that certain bodies of the Barbarian infantry and cavalry should be called the royal battalion, and royal cohort, and by such other names as commanded greatest respect. Apprised of these innovations, the Macedonians, who had long remained in confusion before the tribunal, afraid to follow Alexander, and afraid to allow his retiring unattended, flocked around the palace, and deposited their arms at the gate, humbly requesting to see their king, and declaring that they would never stir from the place, till their tears had moved his compassion. Alexander came forth, beheld their abasement, and wept. The affecting silence, marked by alternate emotions of repentance and reconciliation, was at length broke by Callines, a man highly esteemed

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Affecting
scene at
Opis on
the Tigris.
Olymp.
cxiii. 4.
A.C. 325.

⁵⁴ Arrian, p. 152, & seqq.

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in the cavalry: "Thy Macedonians, O king! are grieved that the Persians alone should be called thy kindred, and entitled as such to embrace thee, while none of themselves are allowed to taste that honour⁵⁵." Alexander replied, "From this moment you are all my kindred." Callines then stepped forward and embraced him; and several others having followed the example, they all took up their arms, and returned to the camp with shouts of joy, and songs.

A festival celebrated in common by the Macedonians and Persians.

Of all men (if we believe the concurring testimony of his historians) Alexander was the most mindful of his duty to the gods. To thank heaven for the happy issue of this transaction, he celebrated a solemn sacrifice, and, after the sacrifice, an entertainment for the principal of his European and Asiatic subjects. The Macedonians were next to his person; the Persians next the Macedonians; the Grecian priests and Persian magi joined in common libations, invoking perpetual concord, and eternal union of empire, to the Macedonians and Persians. Soon afterwards, the invalids, whose dismissal had produced the mutiny, gladly returned home. Alexander discharged their arrears, allowed them full pay until their arrival in Macedon, and granted each soldier a gratuity of two hundred pounds sterling. He again shed tears at parting with upwards of ten thousand men, who had served him in so many glorious campaigns; and, as a testimony of his affectionate concern for their safety,

⁵⁵ Arrian says, "While none of themselves ever tasted that honour." Μαχιδωνες επω τε; γιγνεται ταυτης της τιμης. Arrian, p. 154.

appointed Craterus, whom he loved as his own life⁵⁶, to be their conductor.

Such was the life of this extraordinary man, whose genius might have changed and improved the state of the ancient world. But the spirit of improvement is transient, and demands perpetual efforts; the sources of degeneracy are permanent and innumerable. It seems at first sight to be regretted, that by neglecting to provide for the succession to his throne, he left the field open for those bloody wars among his captains, which long desolated the earth. Yet the difficulties, with which he was himself obliged to struggle, might teach him the impossibility of securing the empire for the infancy of his son Hercules, or the weakness of his brother Aridæus. The principles of royal succession were never accurately ascertained in Macedon; and the camp of a conqueror could not be expected to prove a good school of moderation or justice. The first measure adopted by his generals was, to set aside the natural claim of Hercules, born of the daughter of Darius, and to appoint Aridæus, together with the fruit of Roxana's pregnancy, if she brought forth a son, to be joint heirs of the monarchy. This whimsical destination announced little union or stability. Perdicas, in virtue of possessing the ring or seal of his deceased master, assumed the regency: the troops and provinces were divided among Antigonus, Ptolemy, Craterus, and other chiefs, who, having been formerly the equals, disdained to remain the inferiors, of

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Division of
Alexander's con-
quests.

⁵⁶ Arrian, p. 155.

Perdicas.

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Perdiccas. Each general trusted in his sword for an independent establishment; new troops were raised and disciplined; leagues formed and broken; the children and relations of Alexander, who became successively prisoners in different hands, all perished miserably; nor was there any cessation of crimes and calamities⁵⁷, or any permanent settlement of the provinces, until the battle of Issus in Phrygia confirmed Ptolemy in the possession of Egypt, and Seleucus in that of Upper Asia⁵⁸. The issue of the same battle gave Macedon and Greece to Cassander, and Thrace, with several provinces of Lower Asia, to Lysimachus.

Subse-
quent
history of
Egypt and
Syria.

The great kingdoms of Syria and Egypt, which continued thenceforward, till subdued by the Romans, to be governed by the respective families of Seleucus and Ptolemy, never generally⁵⁹ adopted

⁵⁷ Diodor. Sicul. l. xix & xx. passim.

⁵⁸ Arrian, pp. 160 & 164.

⁵⁹ Yet among the higher ranks of men, the Greek language continually gained ground. Before the Christian æra, it was spoken by Jews, Romans, and Africans. It was the language of the learned and polite in Egypt and Syria, as well as in Italy and Carthage. It must have been understood by all ranks of men in Judæa, since the inspired writers employed it in propagating the gospel, which was to be first preached to the Jews. For this universality, the Greek seems to have been indebted, 1. To the innumerable Greek colonies in Europe, Asia, and Africa. 2. To the conquests of Alexander, whose armies and garrisons were continually reinforced from Greece. 3. To the social and agreeable character of the Greeks. 4. To the excellence of the language itself (see above, chapters v. and vi.), whose duration is as wonderful as its extent. The Greek was spoken in the middle of the fifteenth century, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks; so that, from the time of Homer, it subsisted with little variation, as a living tongue, for two thousand and four hundred years.

the language or manners of their Grecian sovereigns. In Egypt, the first successors of Alexander accomplished the commercial improvements planned by that prince; and the kings both of Egypt and of Syria affected, in their magnificent courts, to join the arts and elegance of Greece to the pomp and luxury of the East. But their ostentation was more remarkable than their taste; their liberal characters were effaced by the continual contact of servitude; they sunk into the softness and insignificance of hereditary despots, whose reigns are neither busy nor instructive; nor could the intrigues of women and eunuchs, or ministers equally effeminate, form a subject sufficiently interesting to succeed the memorable transactions of the Grecian republics.

In the history of those kingdoms, the most important event is their conquest by the Romans, who gradually seized all the western spoils of the empire of Alexander, comprehended between the Euphrates and the Hadriatic sea, and successively reduced them into the form of provinces. Greece, which came to be distinguished by the name of Achaia, imparted its literature, its arts⁵⁸, and its

The western division of Alexander's empire conquered by the Romans.

⁶⁰ Notwithstanding the degeneracy of the Greeks under the Macedonian and Roman governments, their country, and particularly Athens, was long regarded as the principal seat of arts and philosophy. But the Greek artists, as well as poets, orators, historians, and philosophers, of later times, were mere imitators, who fell infinitely short of the merit and fame of the great originals. The works of Phidias and Apelles, of Sophocles, Demosthenes, Plato, &c. not those of the Greeks their own contemporaries, were the objects of admiration to Cicero and Seneca, to the writers of the Augustan age, to Pliny, Tacitus, &c. But of this more in the next chapter.

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vices, to Italy. The conquest of Macedon freed Rome from the weight of taxes. The acquisition of Syria doubled the revenues of that republic. The subjugation of Egypt doubled the price of commodities in Italy. Yet whatever might be the wealth⁵⁹ of those nations, they are entitled to little regard from posterity, since, from the death of Alexander, they were not distinguished by any invention that either improved the practice of war, or increased the enjoyments of peace.

State of
Greece af-
ter the age
of Alex-
ander.

The feeble mixture of Grecian colonization diffused through the East, was sufficient, indeed, to tinge, but too inconsiderable to alter and assimilate, the vast mass of barbarism. But as the principle of degeneracy is often stronger than that of improvement, the sloth and servility of Asia gradually crept into Greece. That unfortunate country, drained of its most enterprising inhabitants, who either followed the standard, or opposed the arms, of Alexander, was equally insulted by the severity and the indulgence of his successors, since, in either case, the Greeks felt and acknowledged their dependence. Reluctantly compelled to submit to a master, they lost that elevation of character, and that enthusiasm of valour, which had been produced by freedom, nourished by victory, and confirmed by the just sense of national pre-eminence. Their domestic dissensions, by carrying them in great numbers into the service of foreign princes, thereby diffused the knowledge of their

⁵⁹ Of which see an account extracted from the public registers, in Appian. Alexand. in Proem.

tactics and discipline through countries far more extensive and populous than their own ; and amidst all their personal animosities, the captains of Alexander, uniformly embracing the maxims of despotism which their master magnanimously disdained, firmly and unitedly resisted and crushed the rising rebellions of the Greeks, whose feeble and ill-conducted efforts for regaining their liberty, only plunged them deeper into servitude. Destitute of immediate and important objects to rouse their activity, the example of their ancestors at length ceased to animate and inspire them. The rewards of merit being withdrawn, men no longer aspired at excellence. The spirit of patriotism evaporated ; the fire of genius was extinguished ; exertion perished with hope ; and, exclusively of the Achæan League⁶², the unfortunate issue of which has been already explained in this work⁶³, Greece, from the age of Alexander, offers not any series of transactions highly memorable in the history of arts or arms.

⁶² The judicious Polybius treats the Achæan league, and other collateral transactions of the Greeks and Macedonians, as episodes in his invaluable history of the progress and aggrandisement of the Roman republic.

⁶³ See vol. ii. p. 15.

C H A P. XL.

*State of Literature in the Age of Alexander—
Poetry—Music—Arts of Design—Geography—
Astronomy—Natural History—Works of Aristotle
—Philosophical Sects established at Athens—
Decline of Genius—Tenets of the different Sects
—Peripatetic Philosophy—Estimate of that
Philosophy—Its Fate in the World—Coincidence
in the Opinions of Zeno and Epicurus—The Stoic
Philosophy—Estimate of that Philosophy—The
Epicurean Philosophy—Character of Epicurus—
Philosophy of Pyrrho—Conclusion.*

C H A P.
XL.

State of
literature
in the age
of Alex-
ander.

IN the latter years of Alexander, literature, philosophy, and the fine arts, displayed their brightest charms; yet the source of that health and vigour, from which their beauty flowed, had already begun to fail. The military expeditions of that illustrious conqueror were described, and published after his death, in the authentic and interesting narratives of Ptolemy and Aristobulus¹, who had been the witnesses and companions of his victories. But his extraordinary exploits, and unexampled success, which far eclipsed the imaginary renown of the fabled heroes of antiquity, produced, even in his life time, a crowd of writers, whose credulity, and love of the marvellous, could only be exceeded by their mean adulation, and

¹ Arrian, in Proœm.

servile superstition². Exaggeration in matters of CHAP.
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fact produced that swelling amplification of style, those meretricious ornaments, and affected graces, which characterised the puerile and frigid compositions of Callisthenes, Onesicritus, and Hegesias³. The false taste of these pretended historians, to whose perverse industry must be ascribed the ridiculous trappings which have too long disfigured the august form of Alexander, was admired and imitated by many of their contemporaries. The contagion infected even the orators; and it is worthy of observation, that the verbose emptiness and bombast of the Asiatic eloquence, was first introduced into Greece, in the age which had applauded the chaste and nervous compositions of Lycurgus, Hyperides, Æschines, and Demosthenes⁴. So true it is, that in every country where the human genius has attained its highest point of perfection, a principle of degeneracy naturally carries things in a contrary direction; because those who are incapable of excellence, still covet distinction, and despairing to equal their predecessors in the beauties of truth and nature, have recourse to false conceits and artificial refinements.

Under the Macedonian government, Greece Poetry.
produced not any original genius in the serious

² Lucian de Scribend. Histor.

³ Strabo, l. xix. p. 446.

⁴ Dionys. Halicarn. de Structura Oration. Longinus de Sublim. Cicero de Orator. & de Clar. Orator. passim.

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kinds of poetry. The tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides still kept possession of the theatre. But no lyric, no epic poet appeared, capable to adorn the exploits of Alexander, though that prince, intoxicated with the love of fame, munificently rewarded the ignoble flattery of Agis, Cleon, Chærilus, and other contemptible encomiasts; who corrupted his heart, without vitiating his judgment, since he declared, that he would rather be the Thersites of Homer, than the Achilles of Chærilus⁵. Yet in the same age Philemon, Antiphanes⁶, Lycon⁷, above all, the Athenian Menander, carried comedy to the highest perfection which it ever attained in any nation of antiquity. During the republican form of government, the institutions and character of the Greeks were extremely unfavourable to this species of writing. The licentious turbulence of democracy generally converted their attempts at wit and humour into petulance and buffoonery. The change of government and manners, requiring due respect to the rules of propriety and the dictates of caution, improved their discernment, and gradually made them sensible to that refined ridicule, where more is meant than said, and to those more interesting, because juster, delineations of character, which distinguished the comic strains of Philemon and Menander⁸.

Improve-
ment of
comedy.

⁵ Acro. ad Horat. Art. Poet. v. 357. Curtius, l. viii. c. v.

⁶ Athenæus, l. xiii. p. 555.

⁷ Plut. Orat. ii. de Fortun. Alexand.

⁸ Vid. Plut. Comp. Aristoph. & Menand.

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Music.

Alexander, during his early youth, took delight in dramatic entertainments. Theſſalus was his favourite actor, but Athenadorus was more approved by the public. To Athenadorus, the magiſtrates, who, according to the Grecian cuſtom, were appointed to decide the pretenſions of rival candidates for theatrical fame, adjudged the prize of merit. The young hero declared, that this deciſion gave him more pain than he would have felt at the loſs of his inheritance⁹. The muſicians Timotheus¹⁰ and Antigenides¹¹ ſtill diſplayed the wonderful effects of their art; but as the ſeverity of education and manners continually relaxed in all parts of Greece, we find that muſic, originally deſtined to purify and exalt the mind, was in later times univerſally employed to ſeduce and inflame the paſſions¹².

Arts of
deſign.

The arts of deſign, painting, ſculpture, and architecture, appeared in their higheſt luſtre in the age of Philip and Alexander, both which princes had no leſs taſte to judge¹³, than munificence to reward them. The eaſtern expedition of the latter introduced, or at leaſt greatly multiplied, in Greece, thoſe precious and durable gems, which thenceforth exhibited ſome of the fineſt ſpecimens of Grecian ingenuity. The ſkill and taſte of Pyrgo-

⁹ Plut. Orat. ii. de Fortun. Alexand.

¹⁰ Hephæſt. de Metr.

¹¹ Plut. Orat. de Fortun. Alexand.

¹² Ariſtot. Politic. l. viii. c. vi.

¹³ Judicium ſubtile videndis artibus. Hor. Ep. l. ii. Ep. i. v. 242.

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Lyfippus.

Apelles
and other
contempo-
rary artists.

teles were distinguished in this valuable, though minute art¹⁴. He enjoyed the exclusive honour of representing the figure of Alexander on gems, as did Lyfippus of casting it in bronze, and Apelles of painting it in colours¹⁵. Lyfippus was justly admired for bringing back the art to a closer study, and nearer imitation, of nature, without yielding to his predecessors in ideal beauty¹⁶. We have already mentioned his twenty-one equestrian statues of the Macedonian guards, slain in the battle of the Granicus. He is said to have made six hundred and ten figures in bronze¹⁷; a number which, if not greatly exaggerated, would prove his facility of working to have far surpassed that of all statuaries, ancient or modern. The numerous list of painters, contemporary with Apelles, indicates an extraordinary demand for their art; since no profession, that is not gainful, will ever be very generally followed¹⁸. The most celebrated of these artists were Amphion and Asclepiodorus¹⁹, whom Apelles acknowledged as his superiors in some parts of composition; Aristides the Theban, who was inimitable in expression²⁰; and Protogenes of Rhodes, whom Aristotle exhorted to

¹⁴ Plin. l. vii. c. xxxvii. & Plutarch. in Alexand.

¹⁵ Vid. Plin. edit. Berolin. i. 221. iii. 217—228.

¹⁶ Plin. iii. 194, & seqq.

¹⁷ The Sieur Falconet, who made the famous statue of Peter the Great, thinks the thing impossible, and gives a different meaning to the words of Pliny. See his observations on the passage, in his translation of the books of Pliny relative to the arts. Vol. ii. Lausanne.

¹⁸ Plin. iii. 222.

¹⁹ Idem, iii. 226.

²⁰ Idem, iii. 215—225.

paint the immortal exploits of Alexander ²¹. The inferior branches of the art, if not first cultivated in that age, were then carried to perfection. Pyreicus ²² confined himself to subjects of low life, and Antiphilus ²³ to caricatures, which the Greeks called Grylli. The theory and practice of painting was explained in many works, the loss of which is much to be regretted ²⁴.

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Amidst the great multitude of artists, and writers on art, all acknowledged the pre-eminence of Apelles, whose works were innumerable, and each sufficient to establish his fame ²⁵. His picture of Alexander, grasping a thunderbolt, was sold to the temple of Ephesian Diana for four thousand pounds. His Venus Anadyomené was damaged by accident; none would venture to restore the parts that had been effaced: so that the injury of the picture contributed to the glory of the artist. The model of this Venus was the beautiful Campaspé, the favourite mistress of Alexander. The sensibility of Apelles was too deeply penetrated with the charms which he so successfully expressed. Alexander was no sooner acquainted with his passion, than, in the language of Pliny, he made him a present, not only of Campaspé, but of his own affection, too little respecting the feelings of the beloved object, at her degradation

Works of
Apelles.

²¹ He exhorted him to paint them "propter eternitatem rerum." Plin. *ibid*.

²² Plin. iii. 226.

²³ Idem, iii. 229.

²⁴ Idem, *ibid*.

²⁵ Plin. iii. 222, & seqq.

CH A P. XL. from being the mistress of a king, to become the possession of a painter. Yet this celebrated artist, who enjoyed other striking proofs of his master's partiality and friendship, lived on good terms with his brethren. With the frankness of his age and nation, he assumed the merit which belonged to him, and freely asserted, that none of his competitors could imitate the gracefulness²⁶ of his attitudes and figures. But in some other branches of the art, he acknowledged himself inferior to several of his contemporaries. The desire of seeing the works of Protogenes carried him to Rhodes. He there found a rival not altogether unworthy to alarm his jealousy. But instead of yielding to the dictates of this unworthy passion, he drew Protogenes from obscurity; raised the price of his pictures; and taught the Rhodians, who undervalued the same talents in their fellow-citizen, which they admired in a stranger, to acknowledge and respect his merit²⁷.

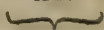
Decline of
the arts
after the
death of
Alexander.

Soon after the death of Alexander, painting and the kindred arts ceased²⁸. By this expression, Pliny means not, that they ceased to be cultivated, but to make farther progress; since neither the scholars of Apelles and Lysippus, nor those who came after them, were capable to reach the glory of their predecessors. The Greek kings of Egypt and Syria seem to have bent their attention rather

²⁶ "Deesse iis unam Venerem dicebat quam Græci charita vocant; cetera omnia contigisse; sed hæc solâ sibi neminem parem." Plin. iii. 222, & seqq.

²⁷ Plin. ibid.

²⁸ "Cessavit deinde ars." Plin. ibid.



to literature, than to the arts. But, in both, the schools of Alexandria and Seleucia never aspired beyond the humble merit of imperfectly imitating those of Greece. In proportion to its neighbourhood to that country, the arts took firmer root in Alexandria than in Seleucia; and, from the same circumstance, they seem to have flourished longer and more abundantly in the little principalities of Pergamus and Bithynia, than in the wealthy kingdoms of Syria and Egypt²⁹.

The expedition of Alexander contributed to the improvement of the sciences, both natural and moral. His marches were carefully measured by Diognetes and Beton. Other geometers³⁰ were employed to survey the more remote parts of the countries which he traversed; and the exact description of his conquests, which, from these and other materials, he took care to have compiled by men of approved integrity and abilities, gave a new form to the science of geography³¹.

Geography.

After the conquest of Babylon, Alexander eagerly demanded the astronomical observations, which had been carefully preserved in that ancient capital above nineteen centuries. They remounted twenty-two hundred and thirty-four years beyond the Christian æra. By order of Alexander, they were faithfully transcribed, and transmitted to

Astronomy.

²⁹ Winkelmann, *Geschichte der Kunst des Alterthums*, p. 711, & seqq.

³⁰ Strabo, l. ii. p. 47.

³¹ Cassini sur l'Origine de l'Astronomie, &c. *Academ. des Sciences*, t. viii. p. 13.

CHAP. Aristotle³², who was probably prevented by his infirm state of health from accompanying his pupil to the East; or who, perhaps, voluntarily preferred a philosophical retirement in Athens, to the glory of attending the conqueror of the world.

Natural
history.

Nor was this the only present to his preceptor, by which Alexander displayed at once his gratitude and love of science. Natural history was peculiarly indebted to his curiosity and munificence. At the expence of near two hundred thousand pounds, an expence equivalent to a far larger sum in the present age, he collected many rare productions of nature in different countries of Asia, and particularly that amazing variety of animals³³, which Aristotle has described with such inimitable precision³⁴ in his work on that subject.

Moral
know-
ledge.

But whatever obligations natural knowledge owed to Alexander, it would seem that the moral sciences were not less benefited by his discoveries and conquests³⁵. The study of human nature must have been greatly enlarged by such a wide survey of manners, institutions, and usages; nor was this

³² Porphy. apud Simplicium, in Aristot. de Cælo, l. ii.

³³ Plin. l. viii. c. xvi.

³⁴ See the admirable criticism on Aristotle's History of Animals, by Buffon, vol. i.

³⁵ The arts and sciences not only flourished in Alexander's time; they flourished, says Plutarch, *διὰ Ἀλεξάνδρου*. "He was the efficient cause of this effect." The passage which follows, *Καρπὼν μὲν γὰρ εὐθόρῳ*, &c. should be studied by all princes who aspire to glory; a glory greater than power can give; more extensive and more permanent than conquest can confer.

advan-

advantage, perhaps, confined to those who performed the expedition, whose works have unfortunately perished; since the moral and political treatises of Aristotle discover not only more method in his reasonings, but a more copious fund of facts on which to reason, than the writings of all his predecessors together, not excepting those of the travellers Xenophon and Plato.

The greatest part of the works of Aristotle were doubtless composed before the Macedonian conquest; yet it is not improbable that this extraordinary man, whose industry was equal to his genius, continually retouched and improved them; and it cannot be imagined that the rich harvest of facts and observations collected by his learned friends who accompanied Alexander, would be overlooked by a philosopher, who seems not only ambitious to eclipse his predecessors and contemporaries, but solicitous to leave no gleanings of fame to be acquired by his scholars and successors.

“Aristotle,” says Lord Bacon¹⁶, “thought, like the Ottoman princes, that he could not reign secure, unless he destroyed all his brethren;” nor was his literary ambition more exclusive than exorbitant. He aspired to embrace the whole circle of the arts and sciences, and professed to explain whatever can be known concerning the moral, as well as the material, world. Not satisfied with extending his empire to the utmost verge of intellect, he boldly attempts questions beyond all human knowledge, with the same confidence that his

Works of
Aristotle.

¹⁶ De Augm. Scientiarum, l. iii. c. iv.

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XL.His philo-
sophy.

pupil entered on a battle. But having to contend with enemies more stubborn than the Persians, his rashness was less successful than that of Alexander.

He divided philosophy into contemplative and practical. The contemplative or abstract philosophy, to which he first gave the name of metaphysics³⁷, is obscure throughout, often unintelligible, still more chimerical, but far less agreeable, than that of his master Plato. It comprehended not only the examination of those abstract ideas, *existence, substance, quality, genus, species, &c.* which were so long and so uselessly tortured by the perverse industry of the schoolmen, but the general doctrines concerning mind or spirit, particularly the mind of the Deity. The human soul is treated in a separate work; in which it must be acknowledged, that Aristotle has made new names, rather

³⁷ By some writers it is supposed, that this title was bestowed on the fourteen books of Aristotle, immediately following his *Physics*, by Andronicus of Rhodes, a Peripatetic philosopher in the age of Augustus, who published the first complete edition of Aristotle's works. From that time, the various subjects treated in these fourteen books were conceived as constituting one branch of science. Aristotle had divided philosophy into speculative and practical. The first comprehended metaphysics, which examined the general properties of being, and the essence of things separate from matter; physics, which examined the nature of material substances, and the human soul; and mathematics, which examined certain properties of body, abstracted from body. The practical philosophy of Aristotle, which was intended to regulate the intellectual and moral operations of men, comprehended logic, under which he seems to have included rhetoric and criticism; and morals, including oeconomics and politics. See Strabo, p. 609.; and Bayle's Dictionary, article Tyrannion.

than

than new discoveries; and the doctrine of the immortality is no where so fully elucidated by this philosopher, as it had been by Plato.

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The natural philosophy of Aristotle deserves the name of metaphysic, in the modern sense of that word, since he explained the laws of the universe, by comparing abstract ideas, not by observation and experience. When he descends to particulars, he betrays more ignorance concerning the motions and magnitudes of the heavenly bodies, than many of his predecessors. With the anatomy of man and other animals, he was well acquainted, considering the gross errors which generally prevailed in the age in which he lived. Chemistry was not yet invented. Since the introduction of the ideal philosophy, men had ceased to *observe* nature; it could not therefore be expected that they should *imitate* her operations, and examine her by the test of experiment. In mathematics, Aristotle appears to have been less versed than his predecessors, Pythagoras and Plato; although, in the invention of the art of syllogism, he displays a perseverance of mental energy, which, had it been directed to the mathematical sciences, might have produced the greatest discoveries.

Physics.

The scepticism of his contemporary Pyrrho, and still more the captious sophistry of the Eristics, might naturally engage Aristotle to examine with more attention than his predecessors, the nature of truth, and the means of defending it against the attacks of declamation and the snares of subtlety.

Logic.

He

CHAP. XL. He undertook, therefore, the arduous task, of resolving all reasoning into its primary elements, and of deducing from thence the rules by which every conclusion must be connected with its premises, in order to render it legitimate. This bold design he accomplished; having erected, on a single axiom, a larger system of abstract truths, all fortified by demonstration, than were ever invented and perfected by any other man. The axiom from which he sets out, and in which the whole terminates, is, that whatever is predicated of a genus, may be predicated of every species and individual contained under it. But the application of this axiom is for the most part sufficiently obvious, without the rules of Aristotle; whose logic, how successful soever it might prove against the subtleties of the Sophists and *Eristics*, contributes little to the formation of the understanding, and nothing to the judicious observation of man or nature, on which all useful discoveries must be founded.

His critical
and moral
writings.

From the general wreck of literature, in which many of Aristotle's writings perished³⁹, had nothing been saved but the works above mentioned, it must be confessed that the preceptor of Alexander would not greatly merit the attention of posterity. In his abstract or metaphysical philosophy, we can only lament vast efforts mispent, and great genius misapplied. But, in his critical and moral, and above all, in his political works, we find the same penetrating and comprehensive mind,

³⁹ See the fate of his works carefully related in Bayle's Dictionary, article Tyrannion.

the same subtlety of reasoning, and vigour of intellect, directed to objects of great importance and extensive utility. The condition of the times in which he lived, and the opportunities peculiar to himself, conspired with the gifts of nature, and the habits of industry, to raise him to that eminence, which was acknowledged by his contemporaries, and admired by posterity.

He was born in the first year of the ninety-ninth Olympiad, at Stagira, a provincial city of Macedonia, and educated at the court of Pella, where his father was king's physician. In his early youth, he was sent to Athens, and remained there twenty years an assiduous scholar of Plato, in a city where literature and the fine arts were cultivated with unexampled success, and where the philosophic spirit, though often improperly directed, flourished in the utmost vigour. Selected by the discernment of Philip, to guide and confirm the promising dispositions of his admired son, he returned to his native country, and continued eight years at the Macedonian court. Whatever benefit accrued to Alexander from the instructions of Aristotle, it is certain that the latter derived great advantages from the gratitude of his royal pupil. Of this, several proofs have already occurred; and perhaps it may be ascribed to the munificence of Alexander, that his preceptor was enabled to form a library³⁹, a work of prodigious expence in that age, and in which he could only be rivalled by the Egyptian

His great
opportunities of im-
prove-
ment.

A. C. 368.

³⁹ Strabo.

and

CHAP. and Pergamenian kings. But the library of Aristotle was collected for use, not merely for ostentation ⁴⁰.

His long
residence
at Athens ;

The last fourteen years of his life he spent mostly at Athens, surrounded with every assistance which men ⁴¹ and books could afford him, for prosecuting his philosophical inquiries. The glory of Alexander's name, which then filled the world, ensured tranquillity and respect to the man whom he distinguished as his friend ; but after the premature death of that illustrious protector, the invidious jealousy of priests and sophists inflamed the malignant and superstitious fury of the Athenian populace ; and the same odious passions which proved fatal to the offensive ⁴² virtue of Socrates, fiercely assailed the fame and merit of Aristotle. To avoid the cruelty of persecution, he secretly withdrew himself to Chalcis, in Eubœa. This measure was sufficiently justified by a prudent regard to his personal safety ; but lest his conduct should appear unmanly, when contrasted with the firmness of Socrates in a similar situation, he condescended to apologise for his flight, by saying, that he was unwilling to afford the Athenians a second op-

and death.
Olymp.
cxiv. 3.
A. C. 322.
Ætat. 63.

⁴⁰ The Egyptian and Pergamenian kings were lovers rather of books than of learning. They considered a great library as contributing to the superfluous magnificence of royalty. Vid. Galen. Comment. 2. in Hippocrat. de Natur. Hom.

⁴¹ Aristotle probably had many assistants in his philosophical enquiries and compositions. 'Ο δὲ σοφὸς, καὶ κατ' αὐτοῦ ὢν, δυνατόν θάψει βέλτιον διδῶς συνεγχεῖ ἔχων. Ethic. Nicom. l. x. c. vii.

⁴² Virtutem incolumem odimus

Sublatam ex oculis quærimus invidi.

HORACE.

portunity

portunity "to sin against philosophy⁴³." He seems to have survived his retreat from Athens only a few months; vexation and regret probably shortened his days⁴⁴.

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Notwithstanding the occasional persecutions of speculative men, philosophy had fixed its roots too deeply in Athens, to be extirpated by the temporary phrenzy of a capricious populace. Theophrastus calmly succeeded Aristotle in the Peripateton, or walk of the Lyceum, from which place their followers retained the name of Peripatetics⁴⁵. At the same time, Zeno taught *virtus* in the Stoa, or Portico, from which his disciples derived the appellation of Stoics⁴⁶. Epicurus explained *pleasure* in those well-known gardens, which were distinguished by his name⁴⁷. The followers of Diogenes, the Cynic, still assembled in the Cynosarges⁴⁸; Speusippus and Xenocrates succeeded Plato in the Academy⁴⁹; and even Pyrrho, the Elian, the founder of the sceptical sect, who had accompanied Alexander in his eastern expedition, and shared the munificence of that prince⁵⁰, be-

Philosophical sects established at Athens.

Olymp.
cxxx.

⁴³ Αμαρτάνειν περὶ τὴν Φιλοσοφίαν. Ælian, l. iii. c. vi.

⁴⁴ Laert. l. v. in Aristot. & Auctor. citat. apud Brucker. Histor. Philosoph. vol. i. p. 787, & seqq.

⁴⁵ The common opinion, that the followers of Aristotle were called Peripatetics, ἐκ τῆς Περιπατεῖν, "ex deambulatione," adopted by Cicero and others, is refuted by the authors cited by Brucker, v. i. p. 787.

⁴⁶ Laert. vii. 5.

⁴⁷ Cicero ad Attic. l. ii. epist. 24.

⁴⁸ Idem, ibid.

⁴⁹ Suidas in Speusipp. Laert. l. iv. c. 1, & seqq.

⁵⁰ Sextus Empiric. Pyrrhon Hypotyp. l. i. c. iii.

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A.D. 396.
Decline of
genius.

came, after the death of his benefactor, a citizen of Athens ⁵¹. Thus did that illustrious city, after the extinction of its freedom, and of its military glory, still maintain its pre-eminence in literature, philosophy, and the fine arts. In the age of Alexander, Athens, as the seat of learning, assumed that precise form, which it exactly preserved seven centuries, till the destructive invasion of Greece by Alaric, and the Goths ⁵². For it is worthy of observation, that the philosophers, who, during this long interval, perpetuated the several sects, submissively followed the opinions of their respective masters. Soon after the age of Alexander, genius disappeared; literature and the arts alike degenerated; no new sect arose; few innovations, and those unsuccessful, were attempted; and thus the period, which has been assigned for the termination of the present work, seems to have bounded the progress of the human mind; whether, according to the observation of Longinus, because liberty is the best nurse of genius, and singularly adapted, by cherishing the emulation and the hopes, to excite the energies, of those born to true excellence ⁵³; or because, in the words of a great philosopher, “there is a pitch of exaltation, as well as of depression, to which when any nation has attained, its affairs necessarily return in an opposite direction.”

⁵¹ Laert. in Pyrrhon.

⁵² See Gibbon's History of the Roman Empire, v. iii. c. xxx.

⁵³ Long. de Sublim. sect. 44.

Instead of examining this speculative question, which the world is perhaps still too young to enable us with accuracy to determine, it will better suit the design of an historical work, to explain the tenets of the different schools of philosophy, then first established in Athens; briefly to relate their various success in the world; and to inquire, with becoming modesty, how far those artificial systems of happiness correspond with the natural dictates of unperverted sentiment, and impartial reason.

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Tenets of
the differ-
ent sects.

Aristotle, the founder of the Peripatetic school, recognised, like Socrates and Plato, the dignity of human nature, and placed the chief happiness of man, not in the agreeableness of his passive sensations, but in the proper exercise⁵⁴ of his intellectual and moral powers. According to Aristotle, the habit of this exercise, directed by right reason, constituted the highest excellence of man, in the same manner as the excellence of other animals, and even of the vegetable and mineral kingdoms, resulted from the perfection of those qualities, by which they are respectively distinguished. Yet, as man is a compound being, consisting of mind and matter, it seemed evident that his well-being must in some measure depend on the condition of his body, and on the means necessary to maintain this

Tenets of
the Peri-
patetic
sect.

⁵⁴ The Stoics adopted, on this occasion, both the sentiments and the language of Aristotle. Ὁ μὲν φιλοδοξῶν ἀλλοτρίων ἐνεργεῖαν ἰδίαν ἀγαθὸν ὑπολαμβάνει· ὁ δὲ Φιληδόνος ἰδίαν πρᾶξιν· ὁ δὲ νεῖν ἐχῶν, ἰδίαν πράξει. M. Anton. vi. 51. “The vain-glorious man places his own happiness in the action of others; the voluptuous man, in his passive sensations; the wise man, in his own active exertions.”

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inferior part of his nature in its most perfect state. The absence of disease and infirmity, and the proper constitution of all our bodily organs, are things desirable not only on their own account, but as furnishing us with the opportunity and the means to exert those mental energies, from which our principal felicity results. In the same manner, the goods of fortune, wealth, friends, and other external advantages, are desirable not only as contributing to the supply of our bodily wants, but as the instruments through which a wise man is enabled to exercise his virtues, and accomplish his purposes. Amidst great calamities⁵⁵, Aristotle required not that perfect self command to which some philosophers pretended. He allowed a moderate degree of perturbation, as suitable to the weakness of human nature. In the present constitution of things, he thought a certain sensibility of passion not only excusable, but necessary; since resentment enabled us to repel injuries⁵⁶, and grief for past misfortunes made us vigilant to prevent the evils that might otherwise overtake us. But although this great philosopher acknowledged the influence of fortune in human affairs, and thought it impossible for the firmest of men to remain unmoved amidst the miseries of Priam⁵⁷; he main-

⁵⁵ Ουτε γὰρ ἐκ τῆς εὐδαιμονίας κινηθήσεται εὐδῶς, ὅτε ὑπο τῶν τυχόντων αὐτυχημάτων, ἀλλ' ὑπὸ μεγάλων καὶ πολλῶν. *Ethic. Nicom. l. i. c. x.*

⁵⁶ To bear insults tamely, was regarded as highly ungraceful, and becoming only the character of a slave. Τοῦδε προσηλακίζουσι· οὐκ ἀνεχέσθαι ἀνδραποδῶδες. *Ethic. Nicom. iv. 2.*

⁵⁷ Ἐν τυχαῖς ἡλιθιότησιν. *Aristot. Ethic. Nicom. p. 40.*

tained,

tained, however, that we ourselves were the principal architects of our own happiness. The attainment of this great object depended far more on our own thoughts and reflections, which were ever and intimately present with us, and on the constitution of our own minds, which were in some measure subject to our own direction and controul, than on our external situation and circumstances, which only affected us by accident, and over which we commonly enjoyed but little power, and sometimes none. The perfection of our virtue, which was entirely our own work, shone forth with peculiar lustre amidst the gloom of unmerited calamity. When we bore it with becoming patience, we rejoiced in our own fortitude; and this inward pleasure always alleviated the smart of external wounds. Assaulted by the most terrible afflictions, a wise man would not deserve indeed the epithet of *happy*; yet neither could he be called *miserable*, since he would still disdain to commit any thing odious or base. Philosophy, which professes to teach us the art of enjoying life, must therefore disregard such circumstances as we can neither govern nor change, and confine itself to that part which we can regulate and controul. It must withdraw our attention from external objects, and fix it on ourselves⁵⁸.

⁵⁸ In explaining the Aristotelian philosophy, the learned reader will perceive that I have endeavoured to translate, as literally as possible, the energetic expressions of its author. The outline has been traced with equal perspicuity and elegance by Dr. Adam Smith; in his Account of the Systems of ancient Philosophy, annexed to his admired Theory of Moral Sentiments. The design of my work obliges me to treat the subject more particularly.

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Division of
the mental
powers.

Intellec-
tual and
moral
virtues.

To know himself, man must know the powers with which he is endowed. Of those, we possess some in common with other animals ⁵⁹, and others in common even with the inanimate parts of nature ⁶⁰. In none of these, it is evident, can the proper employment of man consist, but rather in such faculties as, being peculiar to himself, distinguish and ennoble humanity. These characteristic excellencies of our species all refer, either to the understanding, or to the will ⁶¹; the first possesses reason essentially in itself, the second is capable of being combined and assimilated with this divine principle. From the two powers of the understanding and the will are respectively derived two classes of virtues, the intellectual and the moral. Sagacity, penetration, intelligence, wisdom, are virtues of the understanding; gentleness, temperance, fortitude, justice, are virtues of the heart. The former class consists in the proper disposition and habit ⁶² of the intellectual part of the soul; the latter, in the proper disposition and habit of the desires and affections, which being formed subordinate to reason, and capable of listening to its dictates, then only perform their duty, when, like obedient subjects, they cheerfully observe the commands of their sovereign. The intellectual

⁵⁹ The το αισθητικῶν, the powers of sensation, &c.

⁶⁰ The το θρεπτικῶν, &c. the powers of nutrition, &c.

⁶¹ I have ventured to use this word to express the το σπεντικόν of Aristotle, the seat of the appetites, affections, and passions.

⁶² Επαινεταί δὲ καὶ τοῖς σοφοῖς κατὰ τὴν εἴδη' τὰν εἴδη' δὲ τὰς εἰσωντάς, ἀρετάς λεγομένη. Ethic. Nicom. l. i. c. ult.

virtues

virtues depend chiefly on education and exercise; the moral proceed entirely from habit, from which they derive their name⁶³. It is by practising justice,

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⁶³ Ηθικός, ἔθος; moralis, mos. The same holds not in English. The words ἀρετή in Greek, and *virtus* in Latin, are of very general import, denoting any praise-worthy disposition, habit, or quality, of body or mind, intellectual or moral. The indeterminate use of these words has occasioned strange confusion. The late ingenious Mr. Hume, in his Inquiry into the Principles of Morals, which, in other respects, he justly considers as the most valuable of his writings, enters into a large deduction, to prove that all virtues are praised and recommended as useful or agreeable. These qualities constitute, according to him, the proper definition, the very essence of virtue; and all other distinctions are frivolous. To justify this paradox, he alleges the authority of Greek poets and philosophers, who apply the term *virtue* to bodily strength or address, to memory, judgment, sagacity, &c. as well as to justice, humanity, charity. This indeed is true; but the Greeks distinguished between the virtues of the body, and those of the mind; and the mental virtues they divided into the intellectual and moral. Aristotle characterises moral virtue as a voluntary habit, and says, that moral approbation is excited only by the praise-worthy habit of such affections and actions as originate in ourselves, and depend on no extrinsic cause. See Aristot. Magn. Moral. l. i. c. xv. and his commentator, Andronicus Rhodius, p. 89. and the Ethics to Nicomachus throughout. Mr. Hume, therefore, is justly reproved by Dr. Beattie, for saying, “that the ancient moralists made no material distinction among the different species of mental endowments and defects.” See Hume’s Inquiry, vol. ii. p. 387. But although the ancients, and Aristotle in particular, make very material distinctions between moral and intellectual virtues, yet, in his zeal for the good cause, Dr. Beattie appears to me to go too far in asserting, “that though they considered both the moral and intellectual virtues as necessary to the formation of a perfect character, and sometimes dis-couraged of both in the same treatise or system, yet they deemed the latter valuable only as means to qualify us for the former, and insignificant, or even odious, when they failed to answer this end.” See Essay on Truth, p. 425. First of all, according to the Greek moralists, it is impossible ever to treat of the moral virtues as dis-

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justice, that we become just; by practising temperance, that we become temperate; by practising courage, that we become courageous. Hence the wonderful power of legislation, and early institution, by which the Cretans, the Spartans, and some other nations, were honourably distinguished among the rest of mankind; and by which such states as shall wisely imitate their example, may still reach the same elevation of character, and still acquire the same renown: "For it is not a matter of little moment, how we are accustomed in youth; much depends on that, or rather all."

Moral virtue neither natural nor contrary to nature.

The moral virtues, it is evident, are not implanted by nature; for that which is established by nature, cannot be essentially changed by custom. Heavy bodies, which, by the law of nature, descend, cannot be habituated to mount upwards; nor can fire, which naturally ascends, be taught by habit to move in a contrary direction. The same holds concerning all the other laws by which nature governs her works. Our senses, and other natural gifts, have the *power* of performing their several functions, before they exert it; and they retain this power, although we should allow them to remain inactive. But virtue, like all practical arts, can be acquired and preserved by practice

distinct from the intellectual, since the former could not exist without a mixture of reason or intellect. *Ethic. Nicom. passim; and particularly, l. iii. c. ii.* Secondly, The intellectual virtues were so far from being esteemed only as means to qualify us for the moral, that Aristotle considers the exercise of the former totally independent of the latter, as constituting our highest perfection and happiness. *Ethic. Nicom. l. x. c. vii.*

only,

only. It is neither natural, nor contrary to nature. We are born capable to attain it, but the invaluable attainment must be made and perfected by habit. Yet the greater part of those who aspire to this inestimable prize, have recourse to vain speculations, flattering themselves that this is philosophy. Their conduct resembles that of a patient, who should carefully listen to his physician, but do nothing which he prescribed. By such medicine it is not possible to cure the disorders of the body, nor by such philosophy, those of the mind.

Virtue, as a matter of practice, cannot be reduced to metaphysical precision. It is to be observed, however, that all the virtues depend on the propriety of the affections from which they arise; and that this propriety consists in a certain point or centre, from which the deviations may be innumerable. The vices, therefore, many of which are without names, are far more numerous than the virtues. In general, virtue may be conceived to lie in a mean betwixt the extremes of too much and too little; and this health of the mind resembles bodily health and strength, which are destroyed by excess or defect of nourishment and exercise. Thus, to fear every thing is cowardly; to fear nothing is audacious; courage requires that we should fear only such objects as are truly formidable, and only in that degree in which they ought to be feared. In the same manner, he who is too much affected by objects of pleasure, and
 seizes

Wherein
it consists.

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How it
must be
attained.

Considered as the quality of an action, virtue consists in the propriety of that affection from which the action proceeds; when the affection is neither too strong nor too weak, but has precisely that degree of strength, which right reason teaches us to approve. As the quality of an action, virtue consists, therefore, in mediocrity; but as the quality of a person, it consists in the habit of this mediocrity, since, in judging persons and characters, we regard not particular acts and feelings, but such acts and feelings as are frequent and habitual. We may perform many virtuous actions, without being virtuous men. The most worthless of human kind sometimes indulge the propensity to pity and humanity. But whoever acts right, merely from feeling, will also, from

⁶⁴ Ethic. Nicom. l. ii. c. i. & seqq.

feeling,

feeling, more frequently act wrong. The sentiments of nature, which prompt us to take care of our children, to relieve objects in distress, and to perform many important duties of morality, likewise prompt us to gratify the vilest and most brutal of our passions. Besides this, there are many, and those the most important virtues, the exercise of which is not at first attended with pleasure. To support labour, to endure pain, to encounter difficulties and dangers, which wisdom and fortitude, on many occasions, require, are not obviously recommended by any natural desire; nor is the practice of such duties immediately agreeable. It is still less agreeable, in the first instance, to curb and restrain our natural appetites for pleasure, which is the proper office of temperance; nor can that vigilant circumspection, and ever watchful attention to the most remote consequences of our actions, which is essential to the virtue of prudence, be acquired without trouble and care, without many painful efforts and many difficult struggles. Yet it is the nature of all those virtues, as well as of the hardest lessons of justice, patriotism, and friendship, to become, through habit, agreeable; and the only sure test that we have acquired them, is, that they are practised with pleasure. With good reason, therefore, Plato defines education to be the art of teaching men to rejoice and grieve as they ought; for though there be three ends ultimately agreeable, the pleasant, the honourable, and useful; yet honour and utility are likewise pursued as pleasures⁶⁵.

⁶⁵ Ethic. Nicom. l. vii. c. xi. & seqq.

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The
hardest task
of moral
virtue.

The most extensive part of virtue is employed, therefore, in regulating our desire of pleasure, and aversion to pain. It is also the most difficult; for, as Heraclitus observes, it is harder to combat pleasure than anger. The irascible passions are always moved by some appearance of reason; and, in their most furious excesses, still affect some deference for their sovereign. They often, indeed, mistake his intentions; and, like hasty servants, fly into action, without waiting his last orders. But pleasure passively obeys sensation, without regarding reason at all. The mischief is the more dangerous, being produced by the first object of natural desire; for the love of pleasure is implanted in our frame; the germ expands with our nature; and unless counteracted in due time, becomes ingrained in our constitution, every part of which it impregnates and stains. Habit alone can counteract those dangerous propensities of nature. Habit can enable us to reject dishonourable or hurtful pleasures, to prefer honourable or useful pains; for, as the poet Euenus says, “there is a long-continued exercise of attention, which finally becomes nature”⁶⁶.

Intellectual virtues
the purest

The moral virtues cannot, according to Aristotle, subsist without some mixture of the intellectual;

⁶⁶ Euenus was an elegiac poet of Paros, of whom few fragments remain. The verses translated in the text are,

Φημι ποδὶ χεῖρ ἢ καὶ μελέτῃ εὐχρησθὶ φίλῃ καὶ, δὴ

Ταύτην ἀνθρώποισι τελευτῶσαι φύσιν ἐσται.

This is better expressed by another Greek proverb: Ἐλθὲ βίῃ ἀρίστῃ, ἵσθαι δὲ αὐτοῖς ἡ συνήθεια ποιήσει. Plut. Moral. p. 602.

“Choose the best life, and custom will render it agreeable.”

but

but the latter may subsist alone and independent; and according to both Aristotle and Plato, the purest and most permanent felicity of which man is susceptible, results from the exercise of his rational powers upon subjects of abstract speculation. The labours of the statesman or general, the exertions of the legislator or patriot, all refer to some end or purpose, the attainment of which may be prevented by fortune, or frustrated by the weakness or wickedness of man. The practice of justice, generosity, temperance, and fortitude, requires many conditions, and supposes a variety of situations, which it is not always in our power to command. The just or generous man must have objects to whom he may distribute his justice or generosity; he must possess the means by which to exercise those virtues, which all participate of frail mortality; since, though directed by prudence, they are impelled by passion, and result from the exigencies of our present corporeal state. But the energies of contemplative wisdom are pure and simple, like the intellectual source from which they spring. Not subservient to remote purposes, or contingent ends, they are immediately agreeable on their own account; and, on every side, round and complete in themselves. If the proper exercise of every member or faculty enlivens the sense of our existence, and thereby yields us a perception of pleasure, how wonderfully delightful must be the exercise of the intellect, which renders us sensible of the divine principle within us! To live according to nature, is to live according to the noblest

and most
permanent
source of
happiness.

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noblest part of our nature, which, doubtless, is the mind. To live thus, is the life of a god; for, human as we are, we ought not, according to the vulgar exhortation, to regard only human things; but, though mortal, strive to put on immortality⁶⁷; assured that, as the mind chiefly forms the man, he who most cultivates his mind, is the best disposed in himself, and the most agreeable to the gods⁶⁸.

Estimate of
Aristotle's
philoso-
phy.

Such is the philosophy of Aristotle, lofty sometimes, and imposing, but in general, less erect and independent than that of Socrates and Plato, who preceded him; less proud and boastful than that of the Stoics, or even the Epicureans, by whom he was followed; and on the whole, perhaps, as unexceptionable as that of any moralist ancient or modern.

Its fate in
the world.

It is commonly observed, that Aristotle attained the same authority over the opinions of men, which his pupil Alexander acquired over their persons. But the empire of Alexander was established in his own lifetime, and perished with himself. That of Aristotle did not commence till more than a thousand years after his decease, and continued several centuries. The Peripatetic school subsisted, indeed, without interruption, at Athens; but the

⁶⁰ Χρη δε ὑ κατὰ τῆς πρακτικῆς, αἰθερωπικῆς φρονιμῆς, ἀνθρωποποιεῖται, ὥδε θνητὰ τοῦ θνητοῦ· ἀλλ' ἐφ' ἴσον ἐνδεχεται ἀπαθανατίζειν, καὶ ἅπαντα ποιεῖν κατὰ τὸ κρατίστην τῶν ἐν αὐτῷ. *Ethic. Nicom.* 1. x. c. vii.

⁶⁸ Ὁ δὲ κατὰ τὴν ἐνέργειαν, καὶ τέτον θεραπεύων, καὶ διακρίνων ἀρίστα, καὶ θεοφιλεστάτος εἰσὶν εἰσὶν. *Id.* c. x. c. viii.

Lyceum never attained there any pre-eminence above the Portico and Academy. When philosophy was transplanted to a more splendid theatre in Rome, men of speculation and science generally preferred Plato to Aristotle⁶⁹; while many of the most celebrated characters of the republic enlisted themselves under the banners of Zeno or Epicurus. With the fall of Roman liberty, philosophy, as well as literature and the fine arts, slowly declined; and under the emperors, particularly in the second and third centuries of the Christian æra, the most extravagant of Plato's speculations were the doctrines best adapted to the condition of the times, and to the dark and shadowy minds of Plotinus, Porphyry, Jamblichus, and other contemplative visionaries, distinguished by the appellation of Eclectics, or later Platonists, who possessed the wildness without the fancy, and the subtilty without the genius, of Plato⁷⁰. During the succeeding centuries, the doctrines of Aristotle slowly gained the ascendant; but, as had happened to Plato in an earlier period, the most frivolous part of Aristotle's philosophy was the highest in esteem during the darkness of the middle ages. The decisive boldness of his logic, physic, and metaphysic, suited the genius of a church which affected to be universal, and the insolence of a man who pretended to be infallible; and, while the useful and

⁶⁹ Cicero, *passim*.

⁷⁰ Besides the works of Brucker and Stanley, the learned reader may consult, on this subject, professor Meiner's *Beytrag uber die Neu Platonische Philosophie*. Leipzig, 1782.

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practical works of Aristotle were neglected, his speculative philosophy being thus incorporated with the Romish superstition, they long conspired, with astonishing success, to enthrall the human mind.

Coincid-
ence in the
opinions of
Zeno and
Epicurus.

Zeno and Epicurus pretended, as well as Plato and Aristotle, to deduce their philosophy from experience; but their views of nature are less perspicuous, and less extensive; and their conclusions less convincing, and less reasonable. For the infinite variety of nature, they substituted the narrowness of their own artificial systems; and it will ever be the scandal of this abstract philosophy, that men who boasted following the same path, should have reached such opposite goals; the sect of Zeno having discovered, by all its researches, that pain was not an evil; and the sect of Epicurus, that pleasure was the only good: the Stoics, that virtue alone was truly valuable in itself, and desirable on its own account; the Epicureans, that virtue in itself was really of no value, and merely desirable for the sake of pleasure. Yet, amidst the striking contradictions of these sects, they agreed in speculative pride, loudly asserting, that the philosophy which they respectively taught, was the exclusive road to happiness. Both required from their imaginary sage an absolute command over his passions; and both supposed, that in his present state of existence, he could attain this perfection. Zeno and Epicurus alike rejected the doctrine of future rewards and punishments, as unnecessary to their system; both justified suicide; both boasted of enjoying a felicity equal to that of the gods

and, in proportion as their principles receded from truth and nature, and flattered that factitious vanity incident to the human heart, they were diffused with greater rapidity, more zealously embraced, and more obstinately defended⁷¹.

In examining by what shew of reason, men whose wisdom was revered by their contemporaries, could arrive at such extraordinary conclusions, the dignity of *virtue* demands the precedence for Zeno. That philosopher affected, with great accuracy, to examine the natural propensities of the human race; to observe the various changes which they underwent in their progress from infancy to manhood; to contemplate the effects produced by external causes on our internal frame; and, by comparing man with inferior animals, to display the illustrious prerogatives which he enjoyed, and the high destination which nature had assigned him. Self-preservation, he observed, was the universal and primary desire of all animals. In man, this desire respected his body, and all its different members, his mind, and all its different faculties; and prompted him to maintain the whole fabric of his complex existence in the most perfect condition of which it is capable. Nature had generally attached a pleasure to the means necessary for this purpose; but that we desired pleasure for the sake of preservation, not preservation for the sake of pleasure, he thought evident from the first motions and efforts of all animals, tending to

The stoic
philoso-
phy.

⁷¹ Laert. in Zenon. & Epicur. Cicero de Finibus, l. i, ii, iii. Plutarch. de Commun. Concept. contra Stoicos.

CHAP. XL. prevent dissolution, and preceding any distinct notions of pain or pleasure ⁷².

Love of truth.

Although, in the order of time, man perhaps first felt the propensities requisite to the safety of his bodily frame, yet, at a very early period, he shewed himself endowed with desires of a different, and more exalted kind. Not to mention the obscure intimations of his love of truth and knowledge during his infant state, in which he applied his senses with great activity to the examination of the objects presented to him, he naturally learned the use of words to express these objects, as well as the notions of his own mind concerning them; and had no sooner made this important acquisition, than he testified an ardent curiosity to extend his knowledge, and to enlarge his acquaintance with the nature, the causes, and dependencies of the various classes of beings which he beheld around him. From this love and approbation of what is true and sincere, rather than of the contrary, which he felt to be congenial to his own nature, he readily believed whatever those persons, with whom he conversed, thought proper to communicate to him; a principle which, though the source of innumerable errors and prejudices, served, however, as the only foundation on which his future improvements could be built.

⁷² The principles of the stoical philosophy are explained in Cicero de Finibus, the works of Epictetus, Arrian, Simplicius, and Seneca. In treating of the practical duties of morality, Cicero, in his Offices, chiefly follows the principles of the stoics.

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XL.Social af-
fection.

In examining the nature and relations of other things, he gradually became sensible of his own. His affections, he felt, carried him beyond his own person, and he derived happiness from the happiness of others, although he received from it no advantage but the pleasure of beholding it. The sentiments of justice, gratitude, and benevolence, he felt to be agreeable to his nature, to be proper and laudable; the contrary sentiments, to be disagreeable to his nature, to be improper and odious. His own good, therefore, was thus pointed out to him, by the original frame of his sentiments, to be intimately connected with the good of his family, his friends, his country, and the great society of mankind, of which he made part. Enlarging his views still farther, he perceived, that every species is relative to the element in which it lives; thus fishes have fins for the water, birds have wings for the air; and that many of these species are mutually connected with, and reciprocally subservient to, each other, while all of them essentially enter into the great plan of nature, and complete the harmony and perfection of that universal system, to the stability of which the order of particular parts, or what, in each species, and in each individual, is called private good, must necessarily be subordinate. Considering the narrowness of human capacity, it is not wonderful that many of the connections and dependencies of this universal system should escape our observation. But if we confine our view to those objects of which we have the clearest apprehension, we shall

Universal
system.

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find that they all depend on each other, and are united in one scheme or constitution of things. The individuals of the human race were doubtless formed, not for themselves alone. In the different sexes, the external organization, and still more the inward frame, the correspondence of parts, and still more the sympathy of sentiments, indicate the male and female mutually destined for each other. The naked helplessness of infancy requires the tender cares of a parent. The decrepitude of age loudly demands the kind returns of filial gratitude. In early ages of the world, men, without uniting in small communities, must have fallen a prey to the savages of the desert; and, with the growth of these communities, social affection naturally makes progress; since, with the advancement of arts and civility, the bands which unite us to our country are continually multiplied and strengthened.

Rules of
duty thence
derived.

In thus contemplating the relations in which he stands, man becomes sensible of the duties required of him. The voice of nature teaches him (for this is her universal law) that the greater good is to be preferred to the lesser, and the good of the many to that of the few. In applying this rule to all the classes of objects submitted to our choice, we live consistently with nature. The goods of the mind, therefore, must be preferred to those of the body; and what is called private interest must yield to that of the public. Even in objects of the same class, the general law must be observed. We must prefer and reject, according
to

to the rules of right reason, not according to caprice and fancy. In the primary objects of desire respecting the body, health is to be preferred to strength, and strength to agility; and in the secondary objects respecting this part of our nature, or those which may be employed as instruments to procure bodily pleasures, and ward off bodily pains, such as wealth, power, the good opinion of those with whom we live, and innumerable other circumstances of a similar kind, we must uniformly regulate our conduct by the same great principles of preference and rejection⁷³. In thus appreciating the objects of desire, and when all cannot be obtained, in preferring the most valuable and honourable; in thus appreciating the objects of aversion, and when all cannot be avoided, in rejecting the most hurtful and odious, consist that order and harmony, that just balance of affection, and perfect propriety of conduct, which essentially contains in it whatever is meritorious, laudable, and happy. It is concerning the primary objects of desire, indeed, and the means necessary to attain them, that this propriety of sentiment and action is exercised; but as those to whom we are recommended are often more valued by us, than those by whom we were made known to them, so the duties of wisdom and virtue, to which we have been, as it were, recommended by

⁷³ The technical terms of the stoical philosophy, like all terms of art, sound awkward in languages in which they were not originally invented; nothing can be more natural than the Greek expressions, *ορεγέσθαι* and *εκκλίπειν*.

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the original propensities of our nature, are far more estimable in themselves, than all the external advantages which they are fitted to procure. When our lives are harmonised to virtue, when we perceive the agreement of our thoughts and actions to propriety and decorum, the beauty of this concord strikes us as infinitely more desirable than all the ends which it has a tendency to promote; this concord itself becomes the great, or rather the sole, end of all our pursuits; compared with which, health and sickness, riches and poverty, pain and pleasure, are finally considered as objects of little moment, and altogether incapable of shaking the stability of our happiness.

The pleasure of observing them.

It is in vain that men seek felicity in those objects which depend not on themselves; which, even while they possess, they fear to lose; and which fortune can either give or take away⁷⁴. The feelings of our own minds, which are ever and intimately present to us, must always afford the principal source of our happiness or misery. To a wise man, therefore, every condition of external circumstances, and every situation in life, must be alike indifferent, since there is none wherein he can be placed, in which he may not perform his duty, and render himself an object of approbation and applause to all rational nature. To feel in our own minds the testimony of the whole universe in our favour, and to be sensible, that whatever may be

⁷⁴ Καὶ τὰ μὲν ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἐστὶ φύσει ἐλευθέρᾳ, ἀκώλυτα, ἀπαρμυνέστα· τὰ δὲ οὐχ ἐφ' ἡμῖν, ἀσθενή, δαλὰ, κώλυτα, ἀλλοτρίᾳ. Epictet. Enchir. c. ii.

the consequences of our conduct, it has been governed by the great rules which the Divinity prescribes, affords a degree of inward satisfaction, to which the greatest outward prosperity can add nothing worthy of calculation; for as a single drop of water is lost in the broad expanse of the Ægean, as a single step is disregarded in the immense distance to India, as the light of a taper is eclipsed by the meridian sun⁷⁵, so the external conveniences of life, and the advantages pertaining to the body, are overwhelmed, obscured, and lost, in the transcendent excellence and incomparable splendour of virtue.

Those dangers which appear most formidable, Fortitude. and those calamities which appear most dreadful to the vulgar, cannot intimidate or deject the man, who has fortitude to despise the one, and constancy to bear the other. The sage delights in those clouds of adversity, through which his virtue beams forth with peculiar lustre; and rejoices in the kind cruelties of Fortune, which subject him to difficult and glorious combats. Sensible of his own powers, he is happy to measure them against a vigorous antagonist. The victory is not liable to contingencies, but depends on himself alone; a consideration sufficient to support him against the number and strength of his enemies⁷⁶. When the firm probity of Regulus submitted his perishable body to be burned and lacerated by the Cartha-

⁷⁵ The illustrations given by Cic. de Fin.

⁷⁶ Αὐχμητός ἐστὶν δύνασθαι, εἶναι εἰς μηδὲν ἀγῶνα καταβάνης, ὃν οὐκ ἔστι ἐπὶ σοὶ νικῆσαι. Enchir. c. xxv.

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ginians, he well knew that those revengeful Barbarians could not torture his fortitude, his patriotism, his magnanimity. His mind, guarded by such an assemblage and attendance of virtues, bade defiance to every assault. The mind of Regulus still triumphed; and amidst the painful dissection of his frail members, he maintained and fortified the integrity of that part of his nature which properly constitutes the man, and in which alone any permanent happiness or misery can reside.

Resigna-
tion.

From the enthusiasm naturally inspired by the beautiful and august forms of benevolence and magnanimity, the stoics again returned to the speculations of abstract philosophy. In every arrangement or combination of objects, which can be called a constitution or system, the good of each part, they observed, must be relative and subordinate to that of the whole. To illustrate in the constitution most familiar to us, the body of man, the good of each limb and member, considered as something separate and independent, consisted in preserving its natural state, and in never being subjected to any fatigue or hardship, to any pain or uneasiness. But considered as the part of a system, in the good of which its own is necessarily included, this limb or member must often submit to great inconveniencies. For the sake of the whole body, the foot must often trample in the dirt, must often tread upon thorns, and sometimes be burned, or lacerated, or even cut off, when such operations are requisite for the safety of the whole system. In refusing to comply, the foot ceases to be a foot;

in

in the same manner do *you* cease to be a man, in shrinking from the hardest duties required by the interest of society. But that society itself, as well as every member which it contains, are parts of a larger system, that harmonious whole, whose admirable order and beauty evince the superintendence of infinite wisdom and goodness. Under such government, no absolute evil can exist; and what appears wrong respecting particular parts, must necessarily be right respecting the whole. A wise man will therefore be alike satisfied with every situation in which he may be placed; deeply convinced, that were he acquainted with the whole connections and dependencies of events, that situation would, even to himself, appear the most proper, that could possibly be assigned him. He uses, indeed, such means as prudence directs, to avert calamity; but when that is his lot, he cheerfully submits to the wise dispensation of Providence. The established order of the universe, he knows, is not to be changed by the prayers of men. When *he* prays to the Gods, it is not with a view to alter their wise intentions concerning him: he prays that they would show him the hardest trials with which he must contend, and the severest circumstances in which he must be placed: that by voluntarily accepting those trials, and voluntarily embracing those circumstances, he may prove his confidence in their goodness, and his perfect resignation to their sovereign will ⁷⁷.

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If

77 Ἀγε δὴ με, ὦ Ζεῦ καὶ σὺ ἡ πιπρωμένη,
Ὅποι ποθ' ὑμῖν εἰμι διατεταγμένος,
Ὡς εἴσομαι σπυδαίῳ καὶ ἀκινυῳ.

The

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Command
over the
passions.

If our own unmerited misfortunes ought never to occasion us any uneasiness, so neither ought we to be affected by those of our relations, our friends, or our country. When calamity threatens connections so dear to us, we must exert ourselves strenuously in their behalf; but should our well-meant endeavours be frustrated by circumstances not liable to our controul, it would be highly ungraceful and improper to have recourse to unmanly lamentations. The same law of propriety which prompts our active exertions to the good of others, restrains our passive feelings at sight of their distress: the former alone can be useful to *them*; the latter would be both hurtful and dishonourable to *ourselves*.

The stoical philosophy imposed therefore an absolute silence on the soft voice of pity⁷⁸, as well as on the boisterous dissonance of anger, and on all passions in general which were regarded as perturbations and diseases of the mind, that a wise man ought not merely to appease, but utterly to eradicate. As they supposed their imaginary sage capable of attaining this perfection, they inferred that all duties were alike easy to him. *His* actions were

The reason is subjoined,

Εὐνὴν μὲν εἶναι, καὶ ἄσπονδον ἐφ' ἑαυτῷ.

“We ought to be willing to obey the Gods, since we *must* obey them, whether we are willing or not.”

⁷⁸ Epictetus, however, allows the *appearance* of sympathy with objects in distress, but sternly forbids the reality. Μήτε μὲν τοι λυγρὸ μὴ οὐκ συμπνεύσειν αὐτῷ (viz. the person afflicted) καὶ τυχὸν συναισθάνειν προσχέμεν τοι, μὴ καὶ εἰσθεὶς συναισθάνειν. Epictet. Enchir. c. xxii.

continually regulated by propriety, and all of them therefore equally laudable; whereas those of a fool, or one who substituted passion and caprice in the stead of reason and principle, were all equally blameable. This doctrine, which so nearly resembles that of many Christian divines, "that the greatest virtues of the heathens were but splendid vices," is the source to which all the other paradoxes of the stoics may be traced. Both these Christians and the stoics considered good or bad actions as relative only to the cause which produces them, the affection or character from which they proceed, not to the consequences which flow from them, the good or bad effects which they tend to promote. These consequences and effects, it was observed by the stoics, depended not on ourselves. With regard to us, therefore, they were altogether indifferent; and as such, could not possibly constitute any part of merit or demerit, or become the proper objects of praise or censure.

The ignorant vulgar indeed, and as such the stoics considered all those who were unacquainted with their philosophy, allowed such contingent circumstances to influence their appreciation of actions and characters; and thence the extraordinary confusion introduced into religion and morality. Of two men, equally vicious, the one may be condemned to obscurity, and bereft of opportunity to exert his wickedness; the other may be raised to power, which he abuses, or entrusted with a sceptre, which becomes an iron rod in his hands. To the bulk of mankind, the second appears a greater monster

Vulgar
estimation
of actions
and characters.

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Corrected
by the
Stoics.

The injudicious estimation of virtues and vices, by the effects which they tend to produce, is the source of that extravagant admiration on the one hand, and that excessive severity on the other, which universally characterise the judgments of the vulgar. But a wise man, who examines the first principles of action in the human heart, will neither be dazzled by the splendour of heroes and patriots, nor provoked to undue revenge against illustrious criminals⁷⁹. The civil magistrate, who is intrusted with the interest of society, and who has that interest always in view, must chiefly regard external actions, and consider *them* as sufficient indications of the inward affections and character. It is his business to regulate the lives, not to purify

⁷⁹ Σημεία προκομιστοῦς ἕδνα ψυχῆς, ἕδνα πάσης, &c. Enchir. c. lxxii.

the hearts, of men. But we may be assured that Oth A P.
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He, who can penetrate deeper than an earthly judge, governs the moral world by more refined principles, and dispenses rewards and punishments according to a more accurate standard⁸⁰. To avert his anger, superstition tells us to repair the bad consequences of our misconduct; and, as this is often impracticable, therefore commands an impossibility: to regain his approbation, and that of our own breasts, philosophy exhorts us to fix our chief attention, not on effects, which are transitory, but on the cause, which is permanent; to be less anxious about wiping off the stain of particular sins, than solicitous to stop the source from which they all flow. When we have accomplished this great purpose, we have reached the perfection of our nature. For the Deity, who has enjoined virtue as our duty, has placed our happiness in virtue. In performing the task assigned us, we necessarily attain our reward⁸¹.

Such is the philosophy of the stoics, which Philosophy of
Epicurus.
beside containing several contradictions which all the subtlety of the sect was unable to reconcile, evidently supposes a degree of perfection far beyond the weakness of humanity. The system of Epicurus is not less artificial in its texture, and, though humbler in its origin, is equally magnificent in its conclusions⁸². Like the lowly plant,

⁸⁰ Epictet. Enchir. c. xxxviii.

⁸¹ Quod si ita est, ut neque quisquam, nisi bonus vir, & omnes boni beati sint; quid philosophiâ magis colendum, aut quid est virtute divinius. Cicero de Fin. l. iii. ad fin.

⁸² Diogen. Laert. in Aristip. & Epicur.

which,

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which, at first feebly emerging from the ground, gradually rises to a stately tree towering to the sky, the philosophy of Epicurus, at first restricting the primary objects of natural desire and aversion to bodily pleasure and pain, by degrees expands itself into the fairest forms of virtue, and enforces the severest lessons of duty. That pleasure and pain are the universal objects of desire and aversion is a truth, he observed, powerfully attested by the consenting voice of all animated nature. Not only men, but children, and even brute animals, could they emit articulate sounds, would declare and cry out, that pleasure is the sovereign good, and pain the greatest evil⁸³. That they are, not only the greatest and most universal, but the *sole* ultimate objects of desire and aversion, Epicurus endeavoured to prove by analysing our passions, and actions, and virtues, all of which, he pretended, had, in the last instance, nothing farther in view than to procure bodily pleasure, and avoid bodily pain. If we desire power and wealth, it is because power and wealth furnish us with innumerable means of enjoyment. Sensible that the goodwill of the society in which we live, is necessary to our security, we strive assiduously to acquire it, cultivate friendship, exercise benevolence, and practise with diligence and alacrity all those social virtues essential to the public safety, in which our own is included. When it is necessary to reject a present pleasure, in order to attain a greater in future, temperance must moderate the eagerness of

⁸³ Cicero de Finibus, l. i. c. ix. & passim.

desire;

desire; and when it is necessary to encounter a present pain, in order to avoid a greater in future, fortitude must controul the dictates of pusillanimity. Justice teaches us to abstain from injuring others, as the only condition on which we can escape being injured by them. And prudence, which, according to Epicurus is the queen of all the virtues, and to which justice, temperance, and fortitude are barely handmaids and attendants, invariably points out to us, and enforces, that course of action which is most conducive to our private comfort and happiness. This course of action is acknowledged by all moralists to consist in the practice of virtue; so that virtue, according to Epicurus, is the only true wisdom, and vice the most short-sighted levity and folly.

To illustrate this doctrine, he observed, that though all the modifications of hope and fear ultimately refer to the sensations of bodily pleasure or pain, yet the pleasures and pains of the mind are infinitely more important than their originals. The body can only feel the sensation of the present moment, which can never be of great importance; whereas the mind recollects the past, and anticipates the future. If our mental frame, therefore, be properly adjusted, if our sentiments and judgments be duly regulated, it is a matter of little moment how our bodies be disposed; we may despise its pleasures, and even set its pains at defiance. If pain be violent, experience teaches us that it must be short; it cannot be continued long without becoming moderate, and admitting many intervals.

His analysis of pleasure and pain.

CHAP. tervals of ease ; besides, death is always within our
 XI. reach, and ready at a call to deliver us, whenever
 life becomes a burden.

Bold pre-
 tensions of
 his philo-
 sophy.

By this kind of philosophical chemistry, Epicurus extracted from the grossest materials, the most sublime principles of wisdom and virtue. His philosophy imposed absolute silence on the passions; since no state, and therefore not the little republic of man, can be happy in sedition. In this tranquillity of mind, he boasted a felicity which external pleasures might vary, but could not increase; and his security of enjoyment he asserted to be equally firm and unalterable with that of the Gods, since the most unbounded duration could not afford greater happiness than arose from reflecting, that all our pleasures and pains are confined within a narrow span. Having adopted the atomic philosophy of Democritus, he rendered it subservient to his morality. The phænomena of nature, he fancied might be explained by the figures and motions of the small particles of matter; and as the universe arose, so did it continue, without the interference of the Gods, those celestial beings, who, enjoying complete happiness in themselves, and totally independent on the actions of men, are neither pleased with our virtues, nor offended by our crimes. Confiding in the certainty of these speculations, he trampled under foot the superstitious terrors of the vulgar, and fortified his mind against the fear of death⁸⁴.

⁸⁴ Lucretius, *passim*.

Such were the tenets of Epicurus, than whom no philosopher was ever more admired and beloved by his disciples, or more cordially attached to them in affectionate esteem. He is described as a man of the most amiable disposition, of great gentleness and humanity; and, like Eudoxus, who preceded him, and who inculcated the same loose doctrines of religion and morality, extremely temperate with regard to pleasure; a circumstance which failed not to add much reputation to his philosophy. In his character, the firm and manly, were united with the gentler, virtues. When grievously afflicted with the stone, he bore the agony incident to that disease with the greatest constancy; and, in the last day of his life, when his pain had reached a degree beyond which he could conceive none greater, wrote to his friend Hermachus⁸⁵, and recommended to him the children of his favourite disciple Metrodorus, assuring him at the same time, that as to himself, he still was happy, since the smart of his bodily sufferings was more than compensated by the pleasures of his mind, and particularly by the agreeable remembrance of his discoveries; a declaration, however inconsistent it may be deemed with his opinions, highly honourable to the man.

Such were the philosophical systems respecting life and happiness, by which the more liberal part of mankind long affected to regulate their sentiments and conduct. The excessive scepticism of Pyrrho,

Philosophy of Pyrrho.

⁸⁵ Vid. Diogen. Laert. l. x. sect. ix. & Cic. de Finibus, l. ii. c. xxx. & seqq.

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which none could reduce to practice without meriting the charge of insanity, seems never, even in theory, to have had much vogue among the speculatists of antiquity. In matters of doubtful evidence, indeed, a prudent suspension of judgment had been recommended by Socrates, enforced by Plato, and extended to subjects of every kind by his followers Arcefilas and Carneades⁸⁶. These philosophers, however, in denying certainty, still admitted probability, which they thought sufficient for regulating our judgments and actions. But the extravagant Pyrrho was dogmatical only in maintaining, that no one opinion was more probable than another. The non-existence of sensible qualities, which had been proved by Democritus⁸⁷, Protagoras⁸⁸, and Aristippus⁸⁹, and which is commonly supposed a modern discovery, because the contrary opinion obtained among the schoolmen, probably led Pyrrho to deny the reality likewise of moral qualities and distinctions. As heat and cold, tastes and colours, had no external existence in

⁸⁶ Because Socrates and Plato doubted some things, these philosophers doubted all. Vid. Cicer. Acad. l. i. They formed, what was called, the New Academy, which held the same tenets with the ancient, only asserting them still less positively.

⁸⁷ See Sextus Empiricus, p. 399.

⁸⁸ Pyrrhon. Hypot. l. i. sect. 216.

⁸⁹ *Præterea quoniam nequeant sine luce colores
Esse, neque in luce existant primordia rerum
Scire licet, quam sint nullo velata colore.*

Sed ne forte putes solo spoliata colore

Corpora prima manere; etiam secreta teporis,

Sunt, ac frigoris omnino, &c. LUCRETIVS, l. ii.

bodies,

bodies, and were mere ideas of the mind; in the same manner, beauty and deformity, virtue and vice, happiness and misery, had no real or permanent cause, but depended, like every thing else, on relation or comparison. Upon this principle, "that all was relative"⁹⁰, Pyrrho established topics for enabling his sect readily to dispute the truth of all positions whatever, and which were reduced to ten⁹¹, probably in opposition to the ten categories of the dogmatists. The great patron of Pyrrhonism boasts, that while other philosophers wandered in pursuit of a false and artificial happiness, Pyrrho alone had discovered the true and natural one, and that, by an accident similar to the painter's⁹², who having finished the picture of a dog all to the foam of his mouth, could not, after repeated trials, satisfy himself in painting this last circumstance. Enraged by disappointment, he at length dashed against the canvas the sponge with which he wiped his pencils. Accident produced the effect which he had vainly sought from art; and the foam was represented so naturally, that the picture, though admirable in other respects, was chiefly admired on this account. Fatigued by many painful researches into the nature of truth and virtue, Pyrrho, in the same manner, had discovered that truth and virtue were nowhere to be

⁹⁰ Πᾶντα πρὸς τι. Sextus Empiric.

⁹¹ Sextus Empiric. Hypothes. Pyrrhon. l. i. c. xiv. & Diogen. Laert. in Pyrrhon.

⁹² Sextus Empiric. l. i. c. xii. Sextus calls the painter Apelles. Pliny, l. xxxv. c. xx. ascribes this accident to Protogenes, and a similar one to Nealces, in painting a horse.

CHAP. found; a discovery which produced that modera-
 XL. tion and *indisturbance*⁹³, that happy indifference,
 or rather perfect insensibility, which is as naturally
 attended by happiness, as a body is followed by its
 shadow⁹⁴.

Conclu-
 sion.

In concluding this work with the scepticism of Pyrrho, it is proper to observe, for the honour of Greece, that though the doctrines which that philosopher inculcated can have no other tendency than to unhinge the moral principles, to darken and perplex the mind; yet those systems of his contemporaries, or predecessors, which have been more particularly explained in the present history, amidst all their apparent contradictions, uniformly afford such views of nature and of man, as awaken and cherish our love for both. Established on firm grounds of reason, they evince the indissoluble union of interest with duty, display the beauty of virtue in its brightest charms, and unmask the hideous spectres of fancy and superstition.

⁹³ *Αταραξία*. Sextus Empiric.

⁹⁴ Sextus Empiric. *ubi supra*, & *passim*.

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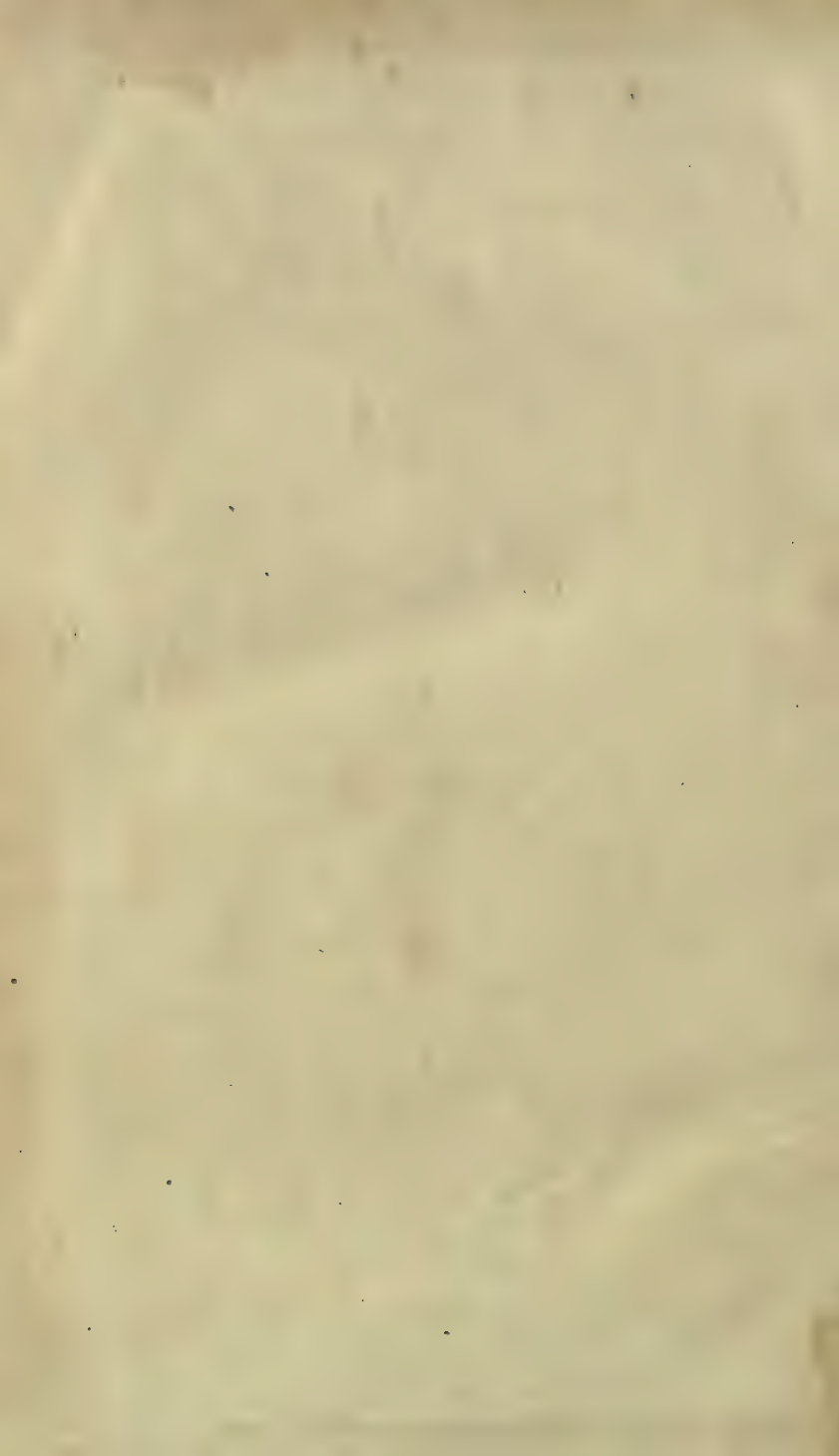
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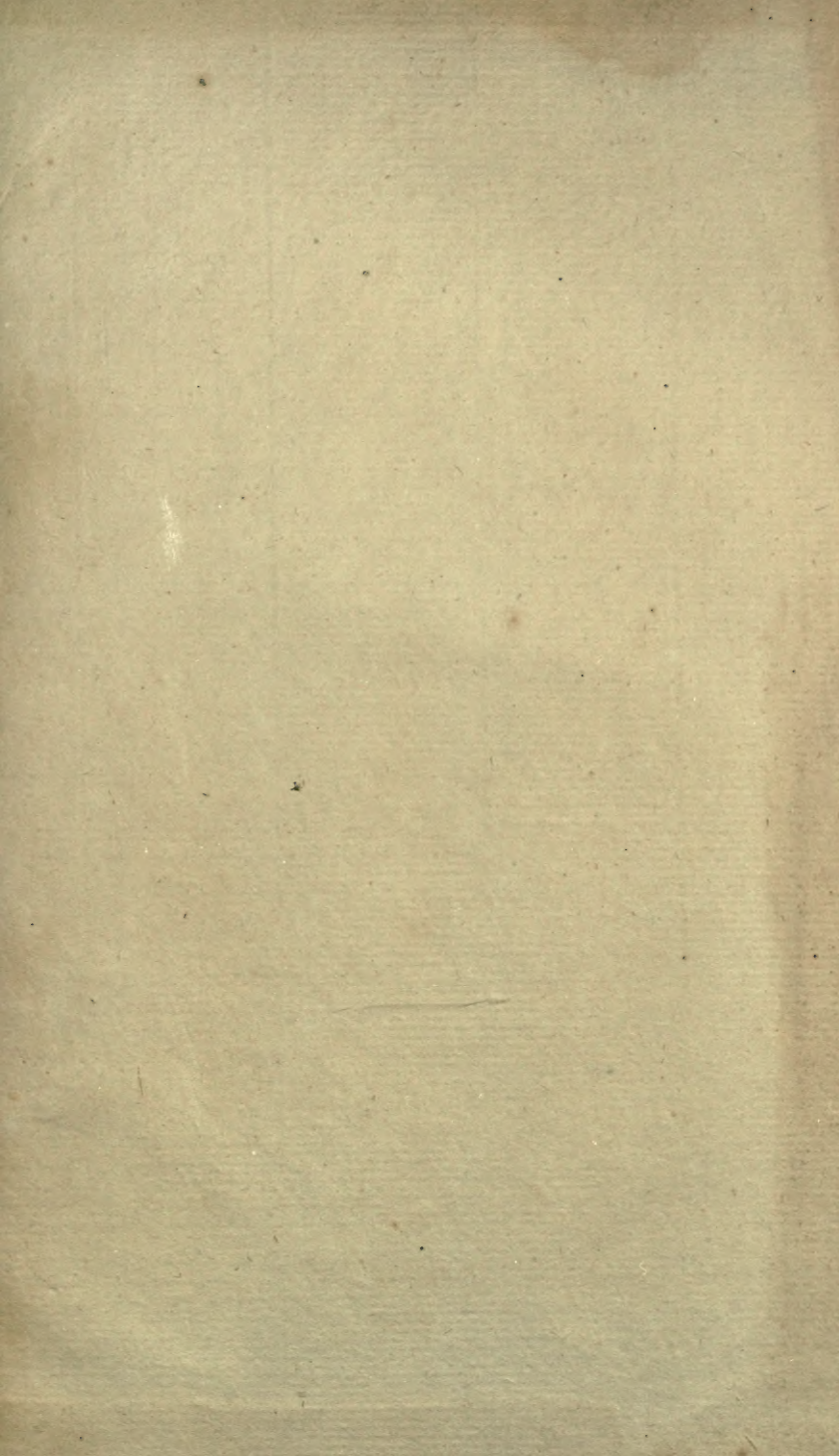
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